

THE NATION

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EVENTS OF THE WEEK

THE new British offer to Canton and Peking has carried the negotiations in China a long stage forward. With the terms of that offer we deal on another page. The actual situation it has created varies from hour to hour. It is reported that Mr. Chen is disposed to accept the offer in principle, but has refused to sign an agreement so long as British troops are on their way to Shanghai; but it would be foolish to assume that the negotiations have finally broken down. The weak point in the protests made both by Canton and Peking

against the dispatch of troops, is that neither party is in a position to guarantee the safety of life at Shanghai, so long as that city, with its great, turbulent population, is liable to be fought over by the half-disciplined armies of Chiang Kai-shek and Sun Chuan-fang. An armistice between these rival forces, or a valid guarantee for the establishment of a neutral zone around the city, would alter the whole situation. But both armies are fighting mainly for the control of the immense Customs revenue derived from the Yang-tze trade. This, rather than Red influence or Nationalist sentiment, is the immediate difficulty, and some agreement for the division of those revenues, or for holding them in trust pending an agreement or military decision, seems to offer the only alternative that would relieve the British Government of the duty to protect its nationals.

* * *

Meanwhile, the Peking Government has created a new difficulty by dismissing Sir Francis Aglen, the Inspector-General of Maritime Customs, on the ground of his alleged refusal to levy the Washington surtaxes. Our information is very meagre; but two possible explanations of Sir Francis Aglen's attitude are obvious. In the first place, the Powers have not all followed the lead of Great Britain in agreeing to an immediate grant of the surtaxes. In the second place, both the Cantonese and Sun Chuan-fang are already levying the surtaxes in fact, and Sir Francis may well have considered the order to collect them for Peking as impracticable in itself, and contrary to the terms of the British offers, now under consideration. This question of allocation of the surtaxes is the crux of the problem, both in the working out of the British proposals and in the safety of Shanghai. Both the supporters and the critics of Sir Austen Chamberlain need to realize that it presents concrete, legal, and technical difficulties, which cannot be got rid of by vague talk about Bolshevism or Imperialism, and can only be solved by hard thinking and good temper on the part of the Chinese as well as the British Authorities.

* * *

Sir Austen Chamberlain has stated that he is willing to make all British residents in China subject to the jurisdiction of the new courts. This statement requires a brief explanation. Under the old regime, practically every district official was both an administrative and a judicial officer. In his second capacity he decided all criminal and civil cases, with little reference to any written code. A set of laws—called rules of harmonious behaviour—had been issued by the Tsing dynasty, and attempts were made from time to time to bring them up to date. But the Tsing code never covered all the cases which were brought before the district officials, who either applied local customs or decided arbitrarily. There was no recognized system of

appealing from the court of a lower to a higher official; and evidence, even in civil cases was often extracted under torture. A regular establishment of district courts of appeal was provided for in the republican constitution; and various presidential edicts have provided since then for the preparation of criminal, civil, and commercial codes. The courts constituted according to the republican constitution, and applying codified law, are the new courts to which Mr. Chamberlain refers, in contradistinction to the courts in which the old common law of China, or the arbitrary decision of an official still settles a case. There are not at present many courts in China which come within Mr. Chamberlain's definition; but most of the treaty ports seem to be provided with them.

* * *

A great step forward has been made in the pacification of Europe. The Ambassadors' Conference has at last reached an agreement upon the outstanding problems of German disarmament—the Königsberg fortifications and the trade in war material—and there is no longer any obstacle to the replacement of the Inter-Allied Commission of Control by the League of Nations. The problem has been reduced to a schedule of written definitions and conditions; the work of the League will be simply to see to it that these are adhered to by the German administrative services. It should be added that Herr Gessler and General Heye will be well advised to warn certain general officers of the Reichswehr that a League Commission is a highly qualified body with a stiff professional conscience, and that its inquiries into such questions as mobilization and training will be both rigorous and well informed. To Germans as a whole the substitution of the League—of which Germany is a member—for an Allied Commission, will bring profound relief, and the tension of Franco-German relations should be sensibly relaxed. For this result both the German Government and the Allied Commissioners, whose task has been one of extreme difficulty and delicacy, deserve much credit.

* * *

President von Hindenburg may be sincerely congratulated on the success of his efforts to secure a Government committed to making the Constitution work. By confirming at once all appointments that were not disputed by any party to the new coalition, and such appointments only, he seems to have convinced the Nationalists that he had a strong bias in favour of prospective Ministers who were ready to carry out loyally the duties of their office, and they lost no time in presenting Herr Marx with a list of names from which extremists were excluded. Herr Marx himself has cleverly distributed the four portfolios allotted to the Nationalists in such a way as to draw on their professional knowledge rather than their party feelings. Herr Hergt, a lawyer and administrator, takes the portfolio of Justice. Herr Schiele, a landowner who farms his own domain, goes to the Food Ministry, where his knowledge of agriculture will be useful. Herr Koch, an ex-railwayman and trade-union official, is Minister of Communications. Herr von Keudell, another landowner who has held high office in the Prussian Local Government service, is Minister of the Interior. There are already signs that the slight concessions made by the Nationalists during the reshuffle, may produce a schism in the party. It would be no bad thing for Germany and for Europe if a fissure should widen be-

tween the Nationalist extremists and those moderate Conservatives whose administrative ability and experience may render them good servants of the Republic.

* * *

The King will open Parliament in person next Tuesday, and immediately after the Speech from the Throne, Lord Balfour will unveil the statue of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain in the Inner Lobby. The chief controversial measures in the new session are expected to be the long-threatened Bill for the amendment of trade-union law, and the measure, which the *Times* has denounced in anticipation, for the encouragement of the British film industry. There is talk of securing a second reading of the trade-union Bill before Easter, but it is doubtful whether the Cabinet is even yet in agreement as to what it shall contain. Mr. Baldwin is credited with a strong desire to do as little as possible to antagonize the unions, but that feeling is by no means shared by all his colleagues, and there is an insistent demand from Tory Members of Parliament and their followers in the constituencies for a drastic measure. As to British films, the Government seems to be definitely committed to the vicious principle of "the quota," and the Bill is to contain elaborate provisions for the collection by the Board of Trade of periodical returns from picture theatres of the films exhibited and for the issue of certificates to British films.

* * *

The Parliamentary Correspondent of the *Times* writes that:—

"The exact position of the Factories Bill is in doubt, but it is assumed that, at all events, it will be included in the King's Speech among the measures which the House will be asked to consider if time permits."

This looks very like a gentle intimation that the Bill is to be shelved, but it is hardly credible that such is the Government's intention, for they are emphatically pledged to proceed with it. Last March, Sir William Joynson-Hicks, explaining that the Bill would not be passed into law in that session, said:—

"That Bill will be one of the principal Government measures of next year (1927), and we will do our utmost and ask the House to pass it into law. That is a categorical statement which I have been authorized to make."

It would not be easy to invent a more definite pledge than this, and Mr. Baldwin takes his pledges seriously.

* * *

The Chairmen of our big banks have been delivering the speeches at their annual general meetings, in which they are accustomed to survey the economic position and outlook of the country. We shall also follow our usual practice, and publish next week an article by Mr. Keynes surveying these speeches. Once again, Mr. McKenna has delivered the most controversial and interesting address. In effect, his speech was a plea for revising the principle on which our note-issue is regulated, so as to permit a greater quantity of notes to be issued on the basis of a given quantity of gold. Behind this plea lay the argument that unless the cash basis of our credit system can be enlarged, the banks may be unable to provide sufficient credit to sustain a real revival of trade. We think that Mr. McKenna is probably right in this view, and that, if trade took a really favourable turn, it might soon come up against the obstacle of insufficient credit. But it is another question whether we can escape from this limitation, now that we have chosen to tie our fortunes up with gold.

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Mr. McKenna makes light of this complication. After treating the wisdom of the return to gold as an open question, he proceeds:—

"But to-day such questions have only historic significance. We have been working on the gold standard for nearly two years, and, except for the rigidity of the Bank of England system, there is now nothing to prevent the same response being given to growing trade demands in this country as has been given in America."

We cannot agree. The return to gold, with the 10 per cent. rise in the exchange which was an integral part of the process, has left a general disparity between British costs of production, and the costs of our overseas competitors; and very little has been done to correct this disparity in the past two years. This disparity makes it necessarily very difficult for us to maintain an expanding export trade, and tends to produce an unsatisfactory trade balance, inconsistent with a large annual inflow of gold, and constantly threatening an outflow. Moreover, the only important step taken towards reducing British costs of production—the reduction of miners' wages—has involved a long derangement of the trade balance, straining our reserves of our financial strength, and leaving the exchange in a very weak position. There is a long interval between the time when goods are bought and the time when they are paid for. It is a mistake, therefore, to suppose that we have worked off the effects of the coal stoppage. In large part, we are, as a nation, only now beginning to foot the bill. The exchange position seems likely, therefore, to remain weak, and a source of anxiety to Mr. Montagu Norman for some time to come; and a considerable expansion of internal credit might, in such circumstances, precipitate a serious outflow of gold. The difficulties imposed by the restoration of the gold standard have not yet been worked off; and one of them is that it is by no means certain whether it would be prudent to adopt Mr. McKenna's policy, desirable as it is from the standpoint of internal trade.

We strongly protested, when the Economy Act of last year was under discussion, against the folly of reducing the State's contribution to the Unemployment Fund, on the ground that the volume of unemployment was then being held in check artificially by the operation of the Coal Subsidy. In the light of that criticism, the present position of the Fund is interesting. Its indebtedness had, by the end of 1926, reached the record figure of £22 millions, as compared with £7½ millions at the beginning of last May. This is £7 millions nearer to the statutory limit (£30 millions) than any point previously attained. Moreover, it is not yet certain that high water-mark has been reached. The rate at which the present volume of unemployment is likely to diminish cannot be gauged with certainty. The crucial problem is that of the mining areas. It is not yet clear how many miners are likely to find permanent employment, or what demands upon the resources of the Fund will be made by those who fail to do so. But the cost of maintaining these latter must considerably exceed the income from the contributions of the former, and the general improvement in employment now anticipated may not offset, for some time to come, the deficit thus incurred. This is one reason—among several—why the Legislature must shortly be called upon to reconsider the financial basis of the Unemployment Insurance Acts.

The National Union of Railwaymen are at present engaged in two series of important negotiations. The

first concerns the restoration of the guaranteed week, and in this vital issue the three railway unions are acting together. The unions made their application before Christmas, but the companies replied that traffic was not yet normal, and would not be for some considerable period, and that this applied even more forcibly to their receipts. The companies therefore proposed a temporary arrangement for a year, under which, provided that a man's total earnings equalled his weekly rate of wages, the companies would have discharged their obligation: in other words, overtime, night work, and Sunday work would all be taken into account, and the guarantee would be in terms of weekly income and not in terms of time worked. The unions have so far failed to modify the companies' attitude, and express themselves as most dissatisfied with what they characterize as breach of faith. Undoubtedly there is something to be said on their side, but, as the companies have hinted, the only alternative is complete unemployment for a substantial number of men. Everyone knows that the railways are over-staffed, but no one has the courage to say so openly. The real motive for the companies' proposal is that it would spread the cost of the working-off of the surplus equally over the whole body of employees, and there is at least some justification for this procedure.

The second issue is an attempt by the N.U.R. to limit to one year from appointment the recent award of the National Wages Board that new entrants to the service should not receive war bonus or cost-of-living bonus but merely the standard rate of wages. This award was a concession to the companies when their claim for substantial wage reductions was refused in December, 1925. The N.U.R. presented their case to the Central Wages Board last week, and as the companies would make no concession, the union has now to decide whether to take the matter to the National Board. Admittedly the award creates anomalies, but it is a step in the right direction. A cost-of-living sliding scale, as a device for wage regulation, is convenient in periods when the value of money is fluctuating to an appreciable degree, but when prices are steady, it is no longer of value. The cost of living, apart from seasonal fluctuations, has now been practically stable for a long period, and a good case might now be made out for the abolition of all such sliding scales.

The opening of the Prince of Wales College, Achimota, by the Governor of the Gold Coast, marks the beginning of an experiment which will be followed with the keenest interest by those who are concerned with the problem of white trusteeship for native races. The distinguishing feature of British colonial administration in West Africa has always been the attempt to preserve, as far as possible, native law, tribal organization, and tribal authority, and to rule through, and not merely over the head of the native chiefs. This policy has given admirable results; but its continued success, in the existing conditions of rapid social and economic development, depends on an adequate supply of educated Africans, with the kind of practical training that will fit them to deal with the problems of administration, hygiene, forestry, and agriculture, which are becoming more and more important. It is for this purpose that the College at Achimota has been established, and if the hopes of its founders are fulfilled, the effect may be felt far beyond the borders of the West African Colonies themselves.

SHANGHAI AND THE NEW OFFER

SIR AUSTEN CHAMBERLAIN'S speech at Birmingham last Saturday was admirable both in tone and substance. He met in full measure the view which we expressed last week that a clearer declaration of policy should have accompanied the dispatch of troops to Shanghai. He made it clear that the Government is prepared, not merely to adhere to the Memorandum policy, but to go beyond it, and, above all, to "persevere" in this course in the face of difficulties, "because we feel that it is the right, and the only right thing to do." A few hours before the Foreign Secretary spoke, Mr. Lloyd George congratulated him on "the great courage, great moderation, and considerable vision" which he had displayed; but, recognizing the need for "perseverance," expressed a not unreasonable doubt as to whether the present Government could be relied on to uphold him in the consistent pursuit of an imaginative policy. A trace of such a doubt must necessarily remain, should the situation enter on a more difficult phase. But Sir Austen Chamberlain has at least done as much as it was in his power to do to remove such apprehensions. His speech rang true; it was with evident sincerity and conviction that he unfolded a liberal and large-minded policy.

Now this in itself is a very remarkable event, and it would be a great pity if its significance were to be obscured by the controversy about the dispatch of troops. The wisdom of sending a large military force in such circumstances as have arisen around Shanghai is not a matter about which it is ever easy to dogmatize. There are objections and dangers, whichever course you take. There is the risk, if you send troops, that your motives may be misinterpreted, however impeccable they may really be, that the atmosphere for negotiations may be prejudiced, and that your conciliatory diplomatic purpose may thus be rendered futile. The report that Mr. Eugene Chen has broken off negotiations with Mr. O'Malley suggests that this consideration may apply to the present case, though it remains to be seen whether this action is more than a momentary gesture. There is also risk of grave military complications. But let no one imagine that, if troops had not been sent, there would have been no risk of serious developments. We know what happened at Hankow. No lives were lost there, it is true. But, as Mr. Ramsay MacDonald pointed out in *FORWARD* three weeks ago, it was "touch and go":—

"A badly aimed—or a well-aimed—brickbat or a finger twitching too nervously on a trigger might have played unimaginable havoc."

And, as he proceeded:—

"Let there be no delusion entertained or talked about the danger of the crowds. A passionate crowd either in Great Britain or in China is an awkwardly irresponsible thing."

Disorder at Shanghai would be a much more formidable proposition than disorder at Hankow. As Sir Austen Chamberlain observed on Saturday:—

"Whereas the comparatively small British communities at Hankow and Kiukiang could be evacuated in an emergency to Shanghai, there could be no such speedy evacuation of the far larger British population in that city."

For our part, we cannot resist Sir Austen's conclusion:—

"It would be a clear dereliction of duty on the part of His Majesty's Government, to whatever party they might belong, after what has passed at Hankow, to leave the British at Shanghai without effective protection."

So far, indeed, Mr. Ramsay MacDonald does not seem to disagree. In the article in *FORWARD* from which we have already quoted he stated emphatically:—

"Nothing could justify our authorities if they simply walked away from settlements which past Chinese Governments have allowed us to control and where our people have taken up their abode under the security which they believed that treaties gave them. We must have an agreement, and during its negotiation ordinary precautions for safety must be taken."

Is his point, then, in complaining of the dispatch of the division, that the precautions are not ordinary, but excessive? On this matter, we think that Mr. J. H. Thomas expressed a sounder view when he declared that "once the Government made up its mind that troops were necessary for the defence of our nationals, I infinitely prefer the sending of a big army than a handful of men." So far as we can judge, the division sent should be fully adequate to stifle attacks by any mob, and thus to render such an attack unlikely. It should be adequate, further, to provide a breathing-space in the contingency of an organized military attack; but that is all. It would be hopelessly inadequate for anything in the nature of offensive action. We conclude, therefore, that the Government are wholly sincere in their professed purpose; that their immediate object is to provide a safeguard against mob violence; and that they have dispatched the very minimum force required to achieve this end and to provide some security against the worst contingencies, if negotiations break down.

There is, however, another side of the question that may prove very ticklish. Suppose the British troops, without departing from an attitude of strict neutrality, are compelled to take up a defensive position to the west of Shanghai, in order to secure the neutrality of the Concessions: in that case their line of communications will be the same as Sun's, and we know from the complications of the Salonica campaign that such a situation demands the most skilful diplomacy. We should like some assurance that the General in command has received adequate instructions as to the treatment of Chinese troops operating within the zone of occupation.

We know now, however, that the dispatch of the troops has been accompanied by an offer which should render any collision with organized Chinese forces extremely improbable. The proposals outlined by Sir Austen Chamberlain, concede, in principle, almost everything that any reasonable Chinese leader has ever demanded. The Government are ready to recognize the jurisdiction of the modern Chinese Courts, without the attendance of a British official, in cases to which British subjects are parties. They are willing to apply at once, in British Courts in China, the modern Chinese civil and commercial codes; and they are ready to extend this process as soon as the remaining codes are formulated, and Chinese Courts on the modern system have been created in sufficient numbers.

As regards taxation, the British Government are prepared to remove the last barrier to tariff autonomy, and to make British subjects liable to payment of all Chinese taxes regularly imposed, so long as they do not discriminate against Great Britain. As regards the

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Concessions, they are willing to enter into separate agreements at each port, with a view to handing over the administration of the Concessions to the Chinese, subject to some provision for representation of the British community on the municipal councils. All this they are willing to do at once, by agreement with Canton and with the Northern leaders, and they will confirm the whole system by treaty so soon as the Chinese can agree among themselves on the election of a Government representative of the whole country.

Here is a frank concession of the two main Chinese demands—tariff autonomy and the abolition of extra-territoriality—subject only to such temporary reservations as are demanded by the existing chaos. It is already being suggested that this is going too far; that a time when threats are being uttered by one side is not the time for concessions to be made by the other. The true answer to this is that given by Mr. Lloyd George, before the full extent of the Government's proposals was known: "The Chinese Nationalists' demands are fundamentally just." As is pointed out, in a very able article in the current *QUARTERLY*, Sir Robert Hart, who knew China and Chinese history as few Englishmen have known them, declared at the very height of the Boxer troubles that the principle of extra-territoriality was indefensible, and that the lives of Europeans in China would probably have been safer if it had been abandoned. If demands are just, it is better that they should be conceded at a stroke than that they should be wrung from us piecemeal. The real criticism of the Government's proposal is that they should have been made sooner; but it must be admitted, in fairness, both that the task of negotiation has been eased by the crystallizing of the Chinese factions into two main groups, and that the blame for delay must lie largely on the shoulders of other Powers. The Government deserve credit for the fact that the lukewarm reception given to the Memorandum has led them, instead of vainly trying to recover unity of front, to come out with a bold and just policy of their own.

The one great danger now lies in the fear that the Cantonese authorities may press claims that are neither just nor practicable. If they are willing to negotiate on a basis of temporary local agreements, all should be well. If they persist in their claim to recognition as the sole Government of China, as a condition precedent to agreement, the position may become impossible, for such recognition would both contradict the plain facts of the situation, and involve an unwarrantable interference on our part in China's domestic affairs.

The real crux of the problem lies in Shanghai. The trade of the Yangtze valley is of such immense importance that neither group is likely to acquiesce, willingly, in any *modus vivendi* that leaves the other party in uncontrolled possession of the Customs revenue collected at that great port. This is a real and serious difficulty, and we should be glad to learn that it has been adequately considered. Provided the present military deadlock continues, it should not be impossible to find some way round it, by a division of the revenues; or by holding the surplus—not required for local administrative purposes—in trust for the Chinese Government which, whether unified or federal in character, must ultimately emerge.

Meanwhile we congratulate the Government on a move which, whatever its immediate results, must go a long way to take the wind out of the sails of the Chinese Communists and their Russian advisers. So long as Great Britain could be represented as the enemy of the just demands of Chinese Nationalism, it was impossible for the moderate Nationalists and the influential merchant guilds—interested above everything else in the free flow of trade—to take a stand against

the extremists, without being accused of an unpatriotic attitude. The present offer should give them their opportunity.

From the very fact that the offer has been made, we may conclude that the negotiations conducted by Mr. Lampson and Mr. O'Malley have not revealed a hopelessly impossible attitude on the part of Canton and the Tuchuns. We are being appealed to to support the Government's military measures on the ground of the urgency of the crisis and the Government's special knowledge of the existing situation. We trust that those who make this appeal will adopt the same attitude towards the Government's wider policy. For ourselves, we support it because it is the only policy that promises a peaceful solution of a problem that must be solved, unless British lives are to be endangered and great British interests abandoned.

MALTHUS AND THE BISHOP

THE Royal Economic Society has just issued a reprint of Malthus's first Essay on Population,* originally published in 1798, which gave rise to the great controversy with which the name of Malthus is associated. Within five years, more than twenty replies to this Essay had appeared in print, the subject had been exhaustively discussed in periodicals and in Parliament, and Pitt had dropped his Bill to amend the Poor Law, in deference to the objections of "those whose opinions he was bound to respect," meaning Bentham and Malthus. In short, Malthus found that he had lit a candle which was causing a conflagration, and he determined to go more deeply into the subject, in order to support his argument by a formidable array of illustrations, drawn from "the best authenticated accounts that we have of the state of other countries." The second version of the Essay, published in 1803, was thus a very different production from the first. The version published in 1798, and now reprinted, is a brilliant piece of continuous argument; the later version is a scientific treatise, four times the length, and far less readable. It was an excellent idea to republish the first Essay at a time when its subject-matter is being debated again in a new setting; the more so as the essential truth of Malthus's position is not yet fully recognized and accepted.

Anyone who now reads the original Essay for the first time may be struck by a discrepancy between its argument and that which is generally and correctly ascribed to Malthus. In 1798, Malthus saw no possible way of escape for the bulk of mankind from perpetual degradation caused by the pressure of population upon the food supply:—

"Through the animal and vegetable kingdoms," he pointed out, "Nature has scattered the seeds of life abroad with the most profuse and liberal hand; but has been comparatively sparing in the room and nourishment necessary to rear them. . . . The race of plants and the race of animals shrink under this great restrictive law; and man cannot by any efforts of reason escape from it."

Thus, he argued, population has a constant tendency to increase beyond the means of subsistence, and this will ultimately lead to famine unless it is held in check by such evils as extreme poverty, wars, and diseases, which are all resolvable into vice or misery. This was the grim doctrine of the first Essay: the "principle of population" was an inexorable decree of unending misery for the human race. By 1803, however, a significant change had crept into the argument. In the second edition the checks to population were shown to be all resolvable into *moral restraint*, vice,

* Macmillan. 10s. 6d.

or misery; and this addition of "moral restraint" to the factors at work changed the note of the book from one of sheer pessimism to one of exhortation. Determinism had been banished, and man was challenged to save himself by the exercise of his Free Will. Malthus cannot be said to have been hopeful, even in his later phase, that "moral restraint" would win the day, but that was the remedy which he earnestly prescribed for the salvation of the human race.

In fact, as everybody knows, the choice, which Malthus justly regarded as inescapable, between the conscious control of the birth-rate or the acceptance of a degraded standard of life, was postponed for eighty years by the unprecedented boom in production which followed the industrial revolution and the opening up of America. Through the greater part of the nineteenth century, the means of subsistence were expanding so rapidly that it was actually possible for a falling death-rate and a practically unrestrained birth-rate to be accompanied by a rising standard of life. We are still, perhaps, too near to that period to realize how abnormal its conditions were, but we shall grossly deceive ourselves if we expect them to recur. The days when a high birth-rate accompanied by a falling death-rate could be regarded with equanimity, and even welcomed, have gone by, probably for ever; but, fortunately, in the interval, modern methods of birth-control have made the deliberate restriction of the birth-rate far more practicable than it seemed to Malthus.

There are undoubtedly some aspects of birth-control which are reasonably regarded with uneasiness by sociologists and moralists. The eugenic aspect of the question, in particular, requires, in our view, to be thoroughly investigated and carefully watched. At the same time, we venture to think that some of those who condemn the practice of birth-control in general terms have not fully realized the penalties that would be attached to its rejection. Bishop Gore, for instance, whose sincerity, humanity, and intellectual integrity are beyond question, has written a pamphlet† in which the subject is candidly discussed "from the standpoint of Christian morality." It is perfectly clear that the Bishop has dealt in this pamphlet with all the most difficult aspects of the problem of which he was aware. But it is equally clear that he was not conscious at the time of writing of the essential fact to which we called attention last week. The death-rate has been cut down to a figure little more than half that which prevailed in the latter days of Malthus, when the population was increasing by leaps and bounds. If, therefore, the birth-rate had remained unchanged, the population would now be increasing at an unprecedented rate and rapidly sinking to a coolie's standard of life and civilization. No doubt the positive checks of vice and misery, which figured so prominently in the Malthusian theory, would soon be brought into action; the death-rate would rise again to compensate for excessive births, and a new equilibrium would establish itself on truly Malthusian principles. There are, of course, some opponents of birth-control whose objection to the practice is so thorough-going that they would be prepared to pay this price in human misery for its rejection. It may be that Dr. Gore's objection is of that absolute character. Our point is that, with an evident intention of facing the issue squarely, he has shown that he has not grasped this vital aspect of it. He refers to:—

"considerations of the utmost uncertainty (as is admitted)—such considerations, I mean, as to 'the optimum population for a given country,' and the bearings of population on war and on revolution, and the possibility of making birth-control in the future eugenic instead of

'dysgenic' by increasing its practice among the poor and reducing it among the professional classes and the rich."

There is no uncertainty, let us assure Bishop Gore, that if he were successful in abolishing birth-control, at a time when our basic industries are feeling the pinch of contracting markets, our numbers would soon exceed, not merely the optimum, but even manageable dimensions, with the inevitable result which Malthus foresaw.

It is possible that Dr. Gore was dimly aware of the danger to which we refer, and that he dismissed it from his mind with the comfortable thought that there was plenty of room in the Dominions:—

"Those who desire to see Canada or Australia controlled by an Anglo-Saxon stock are," he remarks, "in a condition of well-justified dismay."

It would be idle to deny that some alleviation of a redundant population may be found in emigration. That acute distress in Ireland was, for instance, relieved by continuous emigration to the United States is well known. We shall not, however, go far astray if we take the Irish emigration of last century as indicating the limits of what can be achieved by that device. Ireland was a small island with a population of some 8 millions at its maximum. Its unrestricted birth-rate was to some extent balanced by a death-rate which was very high by the standards to which we have now attained in Britain. And, though its population fell, over two generations, to about 4½ millions, this represents a much smaller volume of emigration than would be required to maintain the population of Britain at a stationary figure, if we continued a mid-Victorian birth-rate with a modern death-rate. The United States was in its phase of most rapid development; a largely virgin continent was being peopled. There is no country at the present time which is prepared to welcome immigrants as they were welcomed in America in the middle of last century. Australia and Canada are highly discriminating in their choice of new citizens. A hardy type of settler is still acceptable if he is prepared to go on the land and face the rigours of pioneer life, but the industrial worker is by no means free to use his skill or experience in these new lands. The urban unemployed, the superfluous miner who presents a serious problem even when the national birth-rate is low and falling, can find no outlet in the Dominions, unless he is prepared to make a complete change in his work and habits of which few are capable. There are, moreover, other considerations, which we have only space to mention here, tending to show that emigration is a very imperfect remedy for over-population. It involves the withdrawal of a number of people from the community at a time of life when they are most active, leaving the young and the old to be provided for by others. It throws upon a country, at a time when the pressure of population is being felt, the tremendous burden of producing human beings trained up to the productive age and then making a free gift of them to another community. These and other difficulties must be faced by those who see in emigration the easy solvent of over-population problems; they are formidable enough when only a temporary surplus of labour due to industrial changes is involved, and they make the project of breeding a large annual surplus of human beings for export utterly impracticable.

We have touched the fringe of a vast subject in this article, and it is impossible to do more. The subject is one which deserves far more attention than it generally receives, and the reissue of Malthus's Essay will have been well worth while if it calls attention once again to the fundamental issues which he was the first to see in clear outline. Those who feel called upon to condemn birth-control are, we suggest, under a special obligation to face the alternative which Malthus disclosed.

† "The Prevention of Conception, commonly called Birth-Control." By Charles Gore, D.D. (Mowbray. 1s.)

M. POINCARÉ AND M. BRIAND

IF I may be allowed to blow my own trumpet, I will venture to say that events are substantially confirming the view that I expressed in THE NATION when M. Poincaré formed the Government of the "National Union" just six months ago. That view was that what M. Poincaré was really after was the control of French foreign policy, and that M. Briand would either have to adapt himself to M. Poincaré's views or resign. In September it looked as though I had been mistaken—and nobody would have been more glad than myself, if I had been. M. Briand met Dr. Stresemann at Thoiry, and they came to a provisional agreement about the conditions of a Franco-German understanding, which included the early evacuation of the Rhineland, the suggested consideration for which was to be the placing on the market of a certain number of the German railway securities under the Dawes plan, by which France would be provided with a certain sum in ready money. Of course, as M. Briand said the other day to the Foreign Affairs Committee of the Chamber, there was no binding engagement. There could be none, for neither M. Briand nor Dr. Stresemann had been authorized by his Government to make one. But the conversation was certainly less purely theoretical and hypothetical than M. Briand represented it to have been in his address to the Committee.

That is shown by what happened after M. Briand's return to Paris. After a Ministerial council, at which M. Briand gave his colleagues an account of the Thoiry conversation—in which he had engaged entirely on his own initiative without consulting even M. Poincaré—it was officially announced that there was complete agreement in the Cabinet on M. Briand's policy and that experts were to be appointed to work out the details and report on the matter. This fact must have been forgotten by the members of the Foreign Affairs Committee of the Chamber, or surely one of them would have asked M. Briand about what the experts were to report if, as he said last week, all that had happened at Thoiry was that Dr. Stresemann had raised the question of the evacuation of the Rhineland before the dates fixed by the treaty, that M. Briand had replied that it was for Germany to propose suitable consideration, and that there the matter ended. Why appoint experts to work out the details of a non-existent proposal?

In any case, as we all know, the experts were never appointed, and the matter has just been hung up from that day to this. The Cabinet has continued to be in complete agreement—on the necessity of avoiding this and any other question on which its members disagreed. The question of the Thoiry programme has been indefinitely postponed, like that of the ratification of the debt agreements, and that of the stabilization of the franc.

When M. Briand returned from Geneva in September, he was not in a mood for postponement. "Poincaré is watching you," said somebody to him just before he left Geneva. "Yes," was the reply, "as a lion watches his tamer." Alas! the tamer is now inside the lion, at least temporarily, for it is true that the lion has not digested him, and it is yet possible that the tamer may come forth uninjured like a second Jonah.

How far off seem those brave days of early autumn when the QUOTIDIEN was thundering that the Thoiry programme must go through intact at any cost, even that of wrecking the Government of "National Union," and M. Briand's friends were declaring that he would not yield even

if he split the Cabinet by holding firm. Gradually the enthusiasm cooled down, as time went on and M. Briand did nothing. Then came the December meeting at Geneva, when M. Briand settled the disarmament question, not without some concessions to M. Poincaré, and put into the settlement a clause leaving a loophole for an arrangement by which Germany would consent to a special control of the demilitarized zone in return for the evacuation of the Rhineland. He received the unanimous congratulations of his colleagues in the Cabinet.

Since the Geneva meeting there has been a violent campaign in the Press against M. Briand's policy, visibly inspired by some of his colleagues in the Cabinet, especially M. Marin, Minister of Pensions. M. Briand became angry, he talked of resigning unless he were allowed a free hand, and he demanded a public debate in the Chamber on foreign policy to enable him to answer his opponents. M. Poincaré refused to hear of one, and declared that, should there be such a debate, he would himself speak first and declare that he stood by his Bar-le-Duc speech at the end of September, which was in effect a repudiation of the Thoiry programme. The whole Cabinet, except M. Painlevé, supported him against M. Briand, who gave way. It was difficult for him not to give way, for had he resigned, the chances were ten to one that M. Poincaré could have reconstructed the Cabinet without him. Both M. Herriot and M. Albert Sarraut are quite ready to take M. Briand's place and to take M. Poincaré's directions. Had M. Poincaré been clever enough to shed M. Marin as well, he might have become Prime Minister of a Cabinet of the Left and the Centre with a Radical Foreign Minister under his orders.

M. Briand, however, insisted on addressing the Foreign Affairs Committee of the Chamber and got the unanimous consent of the Cabinet—but not without making concessions. He agreed, in fact, to the further and indefinite postponement of the question of evacuation about which nothing is now to be done unless and until Germany makes official proposals. M. Briand's address to the Committee was an immense personal triumph which has undoubtedly strengthened his position—for the future—and he made short work of his opponents, including M. Franklin-Bouillon, but his policy has received a check. He has not got the free hand for which he stipulated when he joined the present Cabinet. Not that he has finally surrendered. On the contrary, he has acted once more on his favourite maxim and *reculé pour mieux sauter*. The question is, when will he be able to take the leap? So long as M. Poincaré can keep the financial situation in a state of uncertainty without disaster by postponing any decision on the question of stabilization, the difficulties with which M. Briand was faced last week will remain. For so long as the situation is unsettled, he cannot risk a split in the Cabinet without also taking the risk of being denounced as the wrecker of financial restoration. It is more than a risk. It is a certainty. And public opinion, which is much more concerned about the franc than about reconciliation with Germany, would not be on his side. It is because M. Briand knows this that he did not take the plunge. Time will show whether he was right. Perhaps, had he stood firm and taken the consequences, although he would have been temporarily under a cloud, he would before very long have emerged from it in triumph. It is impossible to say, and in any case it is M. Briand's temperament to get round difficulties, not to confront them. Now his best chance of being able to regain the ground that he has surrendered is a change for the worse in the financial situation.

ROBERT DELL.

LIFE AND POLITICS

I HAVE met active Liberals this week who expressed a rather naive disappointment over one point in Sir Charles Hobhouse's account of the financial settlement by which Mr. Lloyd George is to help to run the national organization. These workers seem to have cherished visions of handsome grants in aid to doubtless deserving and certainly impoverished constituencies at times other than election emergencies. That, of course, would be prodigal, as well as unwise, finance. The £42,000 income would not go very far at that rate. As Sir Charles Hobhouse explained, Mr. Lloyd George sensibly stipulated that the fund should not be dissipated in contributions from the centre. Nothing would more fatally destroy the initiative and enterprise of Liberalism in the localities. This stipulation, by the way, seems a sound counter to the talk about the Liberal Party having sold its independence. Each constituency must pay its own piper, and so earn the right to call its own tune.

It is not quite certain that Captain Wedgwood Benn is going Labour, but everyone expects it. None of the recent desertions has been so bitterly deplored. Wedgwood Benn is a real loss to the Liberal Party. His leaving has been rumoured for some time, but I for one refused to believe it. He seemed to be a Radical of Radicals; a Liberal in graip. I am not going to speculate on the reasons; no doubt he will tell us in his own time. I simply record the feeling that nothing that has happened for months past has made one more sick and sorry for the fortunes of Liberalism. Captain Benn is a master of the Parliamentary game. He cannot be put down or turned aside from the mark. Time and time again the Liberal cause has been gallantly upheld by him—during the Safeguarding debates, for instance—when all but he had fled from the Liberal benches. There is not a better fighter in the House of Commons, and he is not merely pugnacious, he is a brilliant tactician. I should not have expected him to desert the ship that is struggling to right itself in the storm. The Labour Party are to be congratulated on a brilliant recruit. Captain Benn has been a favourite with Labour for a long time, and he has worked in a friendly way with them in attacking the Government. In this reasonable co-operation with Labour on common issues he is in sympathy with the policy of his official leader. The two men share the same set of political principles. It is the tragedy of the situation that principles count for so little when it comes to working for them under a man who is disliked. Well, Liberalism will survive even its leaders.

There has certainly been no excessive publicity about the Liberal Industrial Inquiry. The names of the team of eminent economists and industrial experts were issued only the other day, but the Committees have been hard at work for some four months. The final report or series of reports, which should provide a most valuable survey of post-war conditions, with important suggestions for the reorganization of industry to fit those conditions, may be ready for publication in the autumn. The Inquiry has grown out of the exploratory activities of the group of Liberal thinkers who form the famous Summer School, and no doubt the Summer School this year, at which many of the members will take part, will afford a useful opportunity for discussion of the facts and ideas which the Inquiry has collected, and for the elaboration of practical proposals. I think it would be safe to say this about the Inquiry. If three or four months ago one had asked any one of the members to define the proper solution for the problems of industry he would have had little hesitation in making a neat and conclusive

reply. I imagine that the same question now would not elicit the same ready response. All the members have learned a great deal in the interval, and notably the difficulty of dogmatism. The ground to be covered by the Inquiry is very wide, including as it does not only the great obvious problems, such as the permanence or otherwise of our monstrous burden of unemployment, but such questions of change and readjustment as the rise of new industries, the industrialization of the South, and the consequent shifting of population. The Inquiry has undertaken a job which badly needs to be done, and its labours may well have a permanent effect in moulding progressive thought on industrial problems.

After browsing in Mr. Hirst's book and trying to form for myself a fresh estimate of Morley the writer, I came across this in the A. C. Benson Diaries: "Was there ever anything so ridiculous as the reputation of John Morley—a man who has written a few fairly good books, whom we are asked to regard as a great man of letters." I think Mr. Lubbock would have been kinder to his friend if he had suppressed this remark. One is tempted to correct it by reading A. C. Benson for John Morley. I should say that J. M.'s reputation as biographer and literary historian is more firmly established than that of some eminent contemporaries of his great period in the seventies and eighties. I would place his Rousseau among the half-dozen best short critical biographies in the language, for style, humanity, insight. Morley stepped into his unique position as literary dictator with extraordinarily little opposition, but it was his by right of achievement, just as his late-flowering political ambitions were naturally and justly satisfied almost as soon as they developed. There was nothing "ridiculous" about his reputation in either sphere.

There is, all things considered, a singular melancholy about the following little news paragraph: "The up-to-date electricity plant installed during the war having been sold by the War Disposals Board, Gretna has reverted to candles and lamps, and the streets of the factory township created by the Government are in darkness." We all remember how by a miracle of energy and organization this great model factory community was called into being out of nothing. It was a demonstration to the world of what can be done by a modern Government with its illimitable resources to meet an emergency. The fate of Gretna since the emergency passed is indeed a mournful comment on the failure of our rulers to adapt the creation of war to the uses of peace. The miracle has been scrapped and abandoned like so many things born in that time of prodigious effort. No illumination was too magnificent then, but "candles and lamps" are good enough now. There is a parable to be read in the sad case of Gretna.

I think that there should be some comment upon an incident in the "Whispering Gallery" case. In the course of the defence Sir Patrick Hastings produced a translation of Ovid which had been issued by the publishers concerned, and drew attention to an illustration and to the letterpress under the picture. The member of the firm in the box denied that they were "disgusting." Counsel then asked that the jury should see them. The judge decided that this should be done, and the book was handed to the jury. The report proceeds: "This and two other volumes put forward by the defence were subsequently shown to all except the two women members of the jury." What justification can there be for the distinction here made between the men and the women jurors? Both were equally concerned to have this evidence, which the judge thought necessary to be considered, put before them.

If women are to sit on juries no false sentiment of this kind must be allowed to interfere with their proper fulfilment of their often disagreeable tasks. Public-spirited women themselves rightly resent this kind of discrimination, which, if allowed to become a custom, would make it impossible for them to do their duty in courts of law.

As this controversy about the approaching death of the theatre so ingeniously started by Mr. Basil Dean does not seem to be a private fight, I may be allowed to join in. My impulse is to throw something at Mr. Basil Dean, who really ought to know better than to talk of the cinema destroying the drama. I will believe it when the cinema can produce something even distantly comparable to "The Constant Nymph." The theatre, like that other national institution PUNCH, is always not so good as it was. Mr. Dean should leave this sort of conventional talk to his low-spirited elders. In the twenty odd years I have been in London the quality of plays there has notably improved. I should say that our theatre was never so full of varied and promising life as it is at present. The proportion of good stuff to rubbish is amazingly high considering that, like other industries, it has to pay its way by producing for the masses. As to the cinema, I think the brewers have more reason to fear its competition than the theatre people. Like other mechanical marvels of the age it is a trick rather than an art. The cinema has taken over certain spectacular business which the theatre can afford to lose, but after all it is a thing of shadows. Mr. Basil Dean, if rumour is correct, intends to prove his sincerity in the most practical way. He intends to turn film producer himself, and so to rush to the aid of the destroyer.

My excuse for quoting the following characteristic bit of Lloyd Georgian badinage from the Birmingham speech is that for some reason it is to be found in only one report. Referring to Mr. Churchill's week-end boar hunt in France, he said: "It sounds like cannibalism. While he is hunting boars at Dieppe, the editor of the TIMES is hunting the tame specimens in the jungle at Whitehall. I am not sure if they are not the more dangerous."

In a speech the other day Mr. Shaw described Mr. Chesterton as "the apostle of High Jinks." This was metamorphosed by one bright reporter as follows: "Mr. Chesterton is the disciple of Hygienics."

KAPPA.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

FORCE IN CHINA

SIR,—It becomes increasingly difficult to read with patience your commentaries and warnings on the present situation in China. Is it not time that all people of humane ideals and aims were frankly told that the dispatch of the large forces that have gone to China is not only likely, but probably intended, to provoke a war between us and the Chinese, in which there would not be a shadow of right or justification on our side, nor any possible final issue but shameful and deserved defeat, involving the almost complete loss of our already fast diminishing trade with the Chinese. In these circumstances all those who do not demand the immediate recall of all British forces from China, and the recognition of Cantonese rights in all provinces where the Cantonese Government has jurisdiction, are doing a grave disservice, not only to the English people, but also even to the misguided British merchants out in China, who still hope to extend their trade at the bayonet point as they did at the time of the opium wars.

Not long since you were urging the Government to explain the Wanhhsien incident. No English explanation has been given; and now you speak of the necessity of large forces in order to avoid a "repetition of the Wanhhsien fiasco." In what did the fiasco consist—in the fact that not more than one thousand Chinese were killed, and not more than one thousand Chinese houses destroyed? Surely Mr. Chen's "rodomontade" on Imperialism has a considerable "bearing on the existing situation," when he is faced by the dispatch of more troops by a Power which has not hesitated to bombard without compensation or apology an open unfortified town. This act is against the laws of warfare, even were we at war with the Chinese.

The lives and persons of British nationals are in no danger. Persons of other nationality are walking about and doing business freely. It must be admitted, of course, that they have not seen fit to take part in the recent shooting of Chinese as we have done. But it is time that the six thousand odd British in Shanghai faced the situation like the British gentlemen they claim to be. They are free to return to England, or to move northward if they do not like the Cantonese regime.

The Cantonese are the accepted and functioning Government now of nine provinces, practically all the South and West of China. The treaty rights, about which we generously offer to "negotiate," were forced on China by war. No self-respecting Chinese Government could continue to accept them, and our trade and prestige in China stand to gain by their immediate abandonment. There is nothing outrageous or "impossible" in the whole of the Cantonese demands. They are modern people, ready for peace and trade. They have not taken, nor will they take, unless bitterly provoked, the life of any foreigner not engaged in war with them. In fact they are a model of sweet reasonableness, in comparison with what the English would be like, had Chinese gunboats sailed up the Thames for a lark and bombarded Reading and Oxford.

Unless this Government is severely handled, telegraph agencies will soon be busy manufacturing "riots in Shanghai," and the British troops privily engaged in the Chinese civil war, on the side of the North against Canton.—Yours, &c.,

BERTRAND RUSSELL.
DORA RUSSELL.

31, Sydney Street, S.W.3.
January 29th, 1927.

[Mr. and Mrs. Russell appear to have written their letter before Sir Austen Chamberlain spoke at Birmingham last Saturday. After reading his speech, would they still suggest that the Shanghai Defence Force is "probably intended to provoke a war between us and the Chinese"?—ED., NATION.]

MR. LLOYD GEORGE'S RADICALISM

SIR,—I notice that Mr. Ramsay Muir in THE NATION repeats what is becoming the accepted slogan of those who support Mr. Lloyd George, that they who disagree with him do so because they fear his Radicalism. This may be true of some, but it is certainly not true of many. We mistrust, not his Radicalism, but the lasting reality of his Radicalism. We study his past, not to reproach him with it, but as a warning to us of what may happen in the future. We cannot forget that in 1910 he was a fierce Radical, but that in 1918 he was a fierce anti-Radical, that although he gave us the Radical Budgets, he also gave us the Treaty of Versailles. We cannot help fearing that it was because the Tories broke the Coalition, because his friends of the desired middle party, Lords Birkenhead, Beaverbrook, &c., deserted him, that he revived the Radicalism which for some five or six years had been so deftly hidden. It may be that in 1918 he had been reading the late Mr. Oscar Wilde:—

"And all men kill the thing they love,
By all let this be heard,
Some do it with a bitter look,
Some with a flattering word,
The coward does it with a kiss,
The brave man with a sword";

and although now he may be reading Mr. Maynard Keynes and THE NATION, how can we be sure that in the future he

may not be studying the works of Karl Marx or of St. John Bolingbroke or of Lenin?

Radicalism consists in a state of mind towards the problems of the hour and of the future, rather than in furthering Land Schemes that interest no one but their promoters, or in opposing Governments regardless of national interests. Many of us feel a loyalty towards these intellectual aims of Radicalism, a loyalty far greater than many intellectual Radicals have shown towards the leaders who fought for these aims in their darkest hours. We fear that Mr. Lloyd George's guiding force is towards Power, and that this motive, backed as it is by the wealth of a fund, obtained from not intensely Radical pockets, may lead to a confusion of mind and action satisfactory to no one but himself. We fear that Mr. Lloyd George may make a bid to the Labour Party which will result in the extinction of Radical principles and the independence of the Liberal Party. It seems to some of us that if a Radical Party is to survive it must for a time be a voice crying in the wilderness, and we do not feel that the part of St. John would be satisfying to Mr. Lloyd George, or that the wilderness and locust and wild honey is a habitat or a diet which he would enjoy. If the Liberal Party cannot exist as a completely separate and free entity it would be preferable that the Radical Wing should without bargain join the Labour Party and help to strengthen its Right Wing, rather than make some unreal pact which could only result in a personal triumph.

I hope you will excuse my taking up so much of your space as I have been of late taking little part in active politics, although it may be for that very reason I have met so many Radicals who have not yet learnt to look upon Lord Oxford as the exponent of reaction, and upon Mr. Lloyd George as the ideal Radical statesman to make England a place fit for heroes to live in.—Yours, &c.,

ST. JOHN HUTCHINSON.

Albert Road, Regent's Park, N.W.
January 31st, 1927.

THE LIBERAL COUNCIL

SIR,—It was to be expected that the anti-Liberal Press would hail the formation of the Liberal Council as a fresh split in the Liberal Party. It is, however, difficult to understand how *THE NATION*, which has been hitherto a consistent advocate of unity in the party forces, should publish Mr. Ramsay Muir's article entitled "The Latest Liberal Split," and it is no less surprising that Mr. Muir, who has unity also at heart, should have identified himself with the opponents of Liberalism in writing it.

No one knows better than *THE NATION* and Mr. Muir that there is no new Liberal split. The Liberal Council—a body formed within the Liberal Party, and pledged to work wholeheartedly on behalf of all true Liberal causes—is the logical outcome of the lack of confidence many Liberals feel in Mr. Lloyd George and the fears for the independence of the Party now that its principal source of headquarters' income is derived from Mr. George's personal political fund. Whether this attitude is thought right or wrong, Liberalism has nothing to gain from the public abuse in a Liberal journal of those who adopt it.

It is a curious paradox that whereas both the other parties are riddled with rifts and inconsistencies, it is only in the Liberal Party that a domestic difference of opinion is proffered and propagated as a cause of political impotence. The General Strike showed the Labour Party rent from top to bottom, and many of their most distinguished leaders betraying at the decisive moment their own personal belief: while Mr. Baldwin is known notoriously to be a well-meaning shuttlecock in what is admitted, on balance, to be a singularly mediocre Cabinet.

If, then, in these circumstances, the Liberal Party by-election defeats are regarded as due to its internal discords, this is, I fear, largely due to the fact that the Liberal Press has gone out of its way to feed the public with "dissension" and "split" propaganda. From this, I am sure, and I think many other Liberals will agree with me, the Party has greatly suffered. To judge from a cursory survey of Labour speeches one would think that the principles of Ishmael were the primary rules of domestic conduct among the Socialists. They crack each other's heads gladly every day,

and then sweep off to by-elections to gather thousands of votes which fall from the Tory—and Liberal—tables. But no one seems to pay any attention to these furious internal jousts. Whether Labour men and women take one side or the other, they all vote "straight," and the Labour Press rarely, if ever, encourages them to dwell, let alone lament, over what are in many cases fundamental differences on vital issues.

Why cannot the Liberal Press do the same? My counsel to Liberals would be—take the Liberal Council as a fact, but not as a destructive fact. Its members pledge themselves to Liberal work: let them be judged by their Liberal work shoulder to shoulder with all other Liberals, who strive to re-establish the Party's fortunes. And if there is any head-cracking within the Party, let's take a leaf out of the book of the Labour Party and go and win a by-election on the strength of it!—Yours, &c.,

YOUNG LIBERAL.

January 29th, 1927.

WHITE LEAD

SIR,—Mr. Hugh Smith, in his resentment at anything which can conceivably be looked at as part of a "campaign" by the zinc firms against white lead, loses sight of the fact that lead, absorbed daily in an amount so small as 2 milligrams (1-32 of a grain), may in time cause chronic poisoning and shorten life, whereas zinc paints are harmless.—Yours, &c.,

T. M. LEGGE.

Steep, Petersfield.

January 31st, 1927.

"THE BIRTH AND DEATH-RATES"

SIR,—Your article in this week's *NATION* is a most gratifying reminder to a large public interested—actively not passively—in welfare and public health, that their strenuous efforts have proved fruitful.

What you have not mentioned is that these general statistics cover a multitude of figures of less happy tendency.

While, for example, the Women's Mortality from all causes (including childbirth) has diminished by a third since the century began, and has in fact closely followed the tendency of the male mortality figures, the component *maternal* mortality—the deaths of mothers in childbirth per thousand births—has not substantially decreased over most of this period!

It is true that the maternal has never been so serious *numerically* as the infant mortality, and the remedies for the latter have perhaps rightly received prior attention, but a moment's reflection on the economic and domestic functions of the working-class mother—on whom the feeding and training of the home *exclusively* depend—will enable anyone to interpret the annual average figure of almost three thousand maternal-deaths in England as indicating a grave state of affairs that requires examination by intelligent laymen.

According to a very readable booklet issued by the Ministry of Health ("Maternal Mortality," by Dame Janet Campbell, M.D., M.S. H.M. Stationery Office, one shilling), which should be in the hands of every citizen, this maternal mortality appears to be largely remediable.—Yours, &c.,

W. SEYMOUR-LESLIE.

Travellers' Club, Pall Mall, S.W.1.

January 31st, 1927.

"PROVISIONAL ORDERS FOR OBSERVATION UNDER DETENTION"

SIR,—The Recommendation contained in the Report of the Royal Commission on Lunacy and Mental Disorder, that greater facilities should be afforded for the treatment of early mental cases without certification has been hailed with general satisfaction.

The conclusion arrived at appears to be that real hospitals are about to be provided in lieu of places of incarceration. It is by no means clear, however, that such is the intention of Lunacy authorities. They are extremely anxious

to extend their jurisdiction to include all slight and recoverable cases, and to this end have impressed upon the Commission the desirability of recommending a new Provisional Order for Observation of early cases *under Detention*. It might very well happen that what would be set up under this provision would simply be a new ante-chamber to the asylum proper. Even were the so-called "treatment" in Observation places less dreary than it is, the very fact of Detention cannot but weight the atmosphere with depression and apprehension, conditions necessarily inimical to cure.

There will always be cases for whom Restraint is a necessity. The Lunacy Act quite clearly states (S.74) what is the criterion for Detention—viz., that the person must be proved to be dangerous or unfit to be at large. On no other ground is this form of imprisonment of a citizen justifiable.

When, according to the proposed arrangement, the uncertifiable are mixed with the certified, all are liable to be branded as alike insane. But a very large proportion of these early cases are not afflicted with any disease. They are simply upset, unnerved, and worried by the vicissitudes of life, with which they find themselves unable for the time to cope. It is not as if Lunacy institutions were the only possible places to which to invite them. The danger of being cajoled or coerced into a trap is ever present to their imagination. The first essential in the treatment of borderline cases is that it should be entirely divorced from any association with Lunacy administration. To keep a person imprisoned at a stage when Detention is unnecessary is not only an unjust proceeding, but may inflict on him an injury from which he may never recover. The great hope for the future is the provision of sanatoria run on real hospital lines—i.e., without Detention—to which people, when but slightly affected, are not afraid to go voluntarily, and there receive the cheerful and appropriate treatment of which they are so sorely in need. This is the path of common sense. Not till this method has failed, should there be any question of Certification or Detention.—Yours, &c.,

SIGMA.

DOGS FOR VIVISECTION

SIR,—Certain simple, practical questions as regards the supply of dogs for vivisection ought still to be answered for the benefit of the general public.

My dog disappeared on Sunday last, and on Monday morning I made inquiries at University College. I had an interview with an official who evidently felt very keenly the criticisms which have been directed against the methods of the College and of similar institutions, of which some sixty others exist in the London area.

He indignantly denied any suggestion that the dogs operated upon are stolen dogs. He explained that dogs have to be obtained from certain "merchants" who deal in "stray" dogs; and that the reason for this usage is that the College cannot afford to breed its own animals for vivisection.

Secondly, he assured me that every animal operated upon in a licensed college or hospital first receives an anæsthetic at the hands of an expert, and that this is a much less unpleasant death than death with numerous other animals in a lethal chamber, such as (this official alleged) takes place at Battersea Dogs' Home.

It is, therefore, fair to ask: (1) What qualifications distinguish "merchants" in "stray" dogs from ordinary dog-thieves, and whether these "merchants" can be trusted not to regard as "stray" any dogs which happen to wander at large without an owner in sight and (as in the case of my own dog) without a collar? (2) Whether it is really true that a proper anæsthetic is always administered, and whether this applies to the three-score institutions in London where vivisection takes place?

The theory of vivisection has been intelligently discussed in your columns. You will be conferring a benefit on a large public by giving publicity also to these questions of actual practice, whether there is any possible answer to them or not—which I really do not know.—Yours, &c.,

BENITA SIEPMANN.

60, Frith Street, W.1.

ANTI-VIVISECTION

SIR,—

"*Ye are of more value than many sparrows.*"

Prof. Hill is old enough to know that beliefs are seldom changed by argument. His article was a contribution to the laughter that lightens life—and, indeed, it brought tears to my eyes.

The humorous view is often the only mode of attack or defence for a sane man when he cannot find any informing principles running through the contentions of his opponents. The champions of anti-vivisection are passionate and vocal enough—but about what? What is it, deep down, they really object to?

While it may be necessary for propaganda (to touch the heartless, vulgarly common-sensed mass) to demonstrate that no benefits have arisen from the use of animal products in the prevention and cure of disease, it is striking that no serious attempt has been made to show that there is something inherent in substances obtained from living animals which is likely to make them useless in saving the lives of men. The real objection to the use of animals is therefore *not* based on any essential futility in the method.

Is the objection, then, that it is wrong to give pain to any animal, no matter what advantages might accrue to man, *because* inflicting pain *per se* is immoral? If so, the Anti-Vivisection Society must spread its protection to all living things. True, fleas are unwilling hosts of plague and lice of typhus, but these are not more guilty than the toddler who spreads measles to his fellows. Why hasn't the Anti-Vivisection Society raised the "Save the louse" slogan? *Because, in practice* the most prejudiced usually admit that a difference in degree may be so great as to amount to a difference in principle—that killing lice is no murder.

The whole difficulty is at what level in creation to draw the line. Some of us draw it between man and other animals; others between dogs and cats; others somewhere else. The pantheist who refused to remove vermin from his body is the only rock of consistency, although Ruskin and Browning may (theoretically) be of his fellowship. There are some, we think, who pursue their work with animals for the relief of *human* pain in still higher, if less consistent, company, or else "the carnivora were a mistake."—Yours, &c.,

141, Jamaica Road, Bermondsey. J. A. GILLISON.

BIRTH CONTROL

SIR,—From the experience of many years, gained as a trained nurse in London and elsewhere, it has been impressed upon me that there is a great and growing need for the dissemination of information on Birth Control, especially among the overburdened mothers of the poorer classes whose families tend to grow too heavy for their strength. The splendid efforts of the Walworth Women's Welfare Centre, in whose clinic nearly ten thousand cases have been dealt with in the last five years, show what can be done when the necessary service and funds are forthcoming, and my object in writing is to draw the attention of those interested in this great question to a part of London, namely, the Borough of St. Pancras, in which there is a crying need for the provision of information and advice on the lines of that given at the Walworth Centre. In many parts of St. Pancras, there are congestion, overcrowding, and poverty as dire as can be found in any city in Britain, and on the side of Birth Control a small League has been endeavouring for the last two years to do the best it can for the poor and harassed women whose cases are brought to its notice. The League, however, consists, unfortunately, of a mere handful of working men and women, and with all the goodwill in the world they are quite unable to tackle anything but a mere fraction of the work which lies to their hand. Their funds are extremely small, consisting chiefly of contributions made by members of Committee at their regular meetings, but, notwithstanding their straitened circumstances, the St. Pancras Birth Control League can with justice claim to have brought help and happiness to quite a number of poor families both within and without the Borough. All the information given to mothers is given by duly qualified doctors.

It is the earnest desire of the League in the year now begun to consolidate and extend their useful work, and if

possible to establish a Clinic for the Borough. Should this appeal meet the eye of anyone who is interested in the question of providing information on Birth Control for those who are ignorant and who need it most, my Committee would be deeply grateful if those interested will communicate in the first place with myself, so that by the addition of their service and help the work which has been begun in St. Pancras may be increased even tenfold.—Yours, &c.,

MARGARET CHAPMAN,

Chairman of St. Pancras Birth Control League.
1, Brookfield, West Hill, Highgate, N.6.

THE SCULPTOR'S METHODS

SIR,—In one of the new volumes of the "Encyclopædia Britannica," under the heading "Sculpture," I find this curious statement:—

"Rodin himself was not free from the curse which was to a great extent responsible for the decline of sculpture—the use of the full-sized model from which skilled masons or bronze founders produced the finished work."

(The italics are mine.) The writer of the article then describes the younger artists as recognizing that "only by working in their materials themselves could they hope to approach the living work of the great periods of sculpture."

Putting aside for the moment the question of "direct cutting" in stone—a term more popular, perhaps, among art critics than sculptors—let us try to fathom the new method by which, according to the "Encyclopædia Britannica," a sculptor of the modern school produces his statue, bust or reliefs in bronze, without a "full-size model." Hitherto the latter always served as the original from which, by various processes, the bronze replica was obtained. The author of the article, however, seems rather to suggest—he does not explain—some titanic operation on the part of his artist as he shapes his original conception in molten metal—a Moses holding up the Red Sea—or attacks it in the solid mass with file and chisel!

Whatever the method, no life-size model as a preliminary is to be allowed him if he is to escape the "curse" of decadence.

After such heroic teaching, it is comforting to turn to the illustrations of modern work on the next page, one of which represents a very fine bust of Lord Fisher, which

bears all the marks in its handling of having been modelled by Mr. Epstein full-size in the ordinary manner and then handed to the bronze founder. I fancy that most of us, young and old, shall be content with this method—one, after all, of considerable antiquity—and shall decide to take the chances with posterity.—Yours, &c.,

F. W. SARGANT.

34, Via Dell' Erta Canina, Firenze.

ALSACE

SIR,—I have only just seen the controversy in your columns with regard to Alsace. If it is not too late, I should like to add a personal testimony.

Two years ago I was travelling for some weeks in Alsace, and saw a good deal both of the peasants and of professional and business people staying in the mountains. I started with no preconceived ideas and no prejudices. I scarcely met a person who spoke French as a native language, and all immediately expanded into friendliness on finding I could speak German. The feeling was strongly anti-French; tales of petty oppression too numerous to repeat were related, and the parallel with Ireland was expressly drawn.

The feeling was not pro-German so much as pro-Alsatian, and the bitterest grievance was that the Alsations have no voice in their own destinies, but are banded from one Power to another as a matter of political convenience. "This child's father," said one woman, "was conscripted to fight for the Germans against the French. When he grows up he will be conscripted to fight for the French against the Germans. That is what it is like to live in a border country. Why were we not born in Paris or Berlin?"—Yours, &c.,

King's Langley, Herts.

M. DIGBY.

"WHIPPING POSTS AND STOCKS"

SIR,—As a many years' reader of your valuable journal, and as an antiquary, may I ask as a special favour if any of your numerous readers will give me the locality of any "whipping-posts" or "stocks," or the remains of any?—Yours, &c.,

JAMES ALSTON.

170, Dalton Road, Barrow.
January 28th, 1927.

MERCURY

By D. H. LAWRENCE.

IT was Sunday, and very hot. The holiday-makers flocked to the hill of Mercury, to rise two thousand feet above the steamy haze of the valleys. For the summer had been very wet, and the sudden heat covered the land in hot steam.

Every time it made its ascent, the funicular was crowded. It hauled itself up the steep incline, that towards the top looked almost perpendicular, the steel thread of the rails in the gulf of pine-trees hanging like an iron rope against a wall. The women held their breath, and did not look. Or they looked back towards the sinking levels of the river, steamed and dim, far-stretching over the frontier.

When you arrived at the top, there was nothing to do. The hill was a pine-covered cone, paths wound between the high tree-trunks, and you could walk round and see the glimpses of the world all round, all round; the dim, far river-plain, with a dull glint of the great stream, to westwards; southwards, the black, forest-covered, agile-looking hills, with emerald-green clearings and a white house or two; east, the inner valley, with two villages, factory chimneys, pointed churches, and hills beyond; and north, the steep hills of forest, with reddish crags and reddish castle ruins. The hot sun burned overhead, and all was in steam.

Only on the very summit of the hill there was a tower, an outlook tower; a long restaurant with its beer garden, all the little yellow tables standing with their round discs

under the horse-chestnut trees; then a bit of rock-garden on the slope. But the great trees began again in wilderness, a few yards off.

The Sunday crowd came up in waves from the funicular. In waves they ebbed through the beer-garden. But not many sat down to drink. Nobody was spending any money. Some paid to go up the outlook tower, to look down on a world of vapours and black, agile-crouching hills, and half-cooked towns. Then everybody dispersed along the paths, to sit among the trees in the cool air.

There was not a breath of wind. Lying and looking upwards at the shaggy, barbaric middle-world of the pine-trees, it was difficult to decide whether the pure high trunks supported the upper thicket of darkness, or whether they descended from it like great cords stretched downwards. Anyhow, in between the tree-top world and the earth-world went the wonderful clean cords of innumerable proud tree-trunks, clear as rain. And as you watched, you saw that the upper world was faintly moving, faintly, most faintly swaying, with a circular movement, though the lower trunks were utterly motionless and monolithic.

There was nothing to do. In all the world, there was nothing to do, and nothing to be done. Why have we all come to the top of the Merkur?—there is nothing for us to do.

What matter! We have come a stride beyond the world. Let it steam and cook its half-baked reality below

there. On the hill of Mercury we take no notice. Even we do not trouble to wander and pick the fat, blue, sourish bilberries. Just lie and see the rain-pure tree-trunks like chords of music between two worlds.

The hours pass by, people wander and disappear and reappear. All is hot and quiet. Humanity is rarely boisterous any more. You go for a drink: finches run among the few people at the tables: everybody glances at everybody, but with remoteness.

There is nothing to do but to return and lie down under the pine-trees. Nothing to do. But why do anything, anyhow? The desire to do anything has gone. The tree-trunks, living like rain, they are quite active enough.

At the foot of the outlook tower there is an old tablet-stone with a very much battered Mercury, in relief. There is also an altar, or votive stone, both from the Roman times. The Romans are supposed to have worshipped Mercury on this summit. The battered god, with his round sun-head, looks very hollow-eyed and unimpressive in the purplish red sandstone of the district. And no one any more will throw grains of offering in the hollow of the votive stone: also common, purplish-red sandstone, very local and un-Roman.

The Sunday people do not even look. Why should they? They keep passing on into the pine-trees. And many sit on the benches, many lie upon the long chairs. It is very hot, in the afternoon, and very still.

Till there seems a faint whistling in the tops of the pine-trees, and out of the universal semi-consciousness of the afternoon arouses a bristling uneasiness. The crowd is astir, looking at the sky. And sure enough, there is a great flat blackness reared up in the western sky, curled with white wisps and loose breast-feathers. It looks very sinister, as only the elements still can look. Under the sudden weird whistling of the upper pine-trees, there is a subdued babble and calling of frightened voices.

They want to get down, the crowd want to get down off the hill of Mercury, before the storm comes. At any price to get off this hill! They stream towards the funicular, while the sky blackens with incredible rapidity. And as the crowd presses down towards the little station, the first blaze of lightning opens out, followed immediately by a crash of thunder, and great darkness. In one strange movement, the crowd takes refuge in the deep verandah of the restaurant, pressing among the little tables in silence. There is no rain, and no definite wind, only a sudden coldness which makes the crowd press closer.

They press closer, in the darkness and the suspense. They have become curiously unified, the crowd, as if they had fused into one body. As the air sends a chill waft under the verandah, the voices murmur plaintively, like birds under leaves, the bodies press closer together, seeking shelter in contact.

The gloom, dark as night, seems to continue a long time. Then suddenly the lightning dances white on the floor, dances and shakes upon the ground, up and down, and lights up the white striding of a man, lights him up only to the hips, white and naked and striding, with fire on his heels. He seems to be hurrying, this fiery man whose upper half is invisible, and at his naked heels white little flames seem to flutter. His flat, powerful thighs, his legs white as fire stride rapidly across the open, in front of the verandah, dragging little white flames at the ankles, with the movement. He is going somewhere, swiftly.

In the great bang of the thunder the apparition disappears, the earth moves, and the house jumps in complete darkness. A faint whimpering of terror comes from the crowd, as the cold air swirls in. But still, upon the darkness, there is no rain. There is no relief: a long wait.

Brilliant and blinding, the lightning falls again, a strange bruising thud comes from the forest, as all the little tables and the secret tree-trunks stand for one unnatural second exposed. Then the blow of the thunder, under which the house and the crowd reel as under an explosion. The storm is playing directly upon the Merkur. A belated sound of tearing branches comes out of the forest.

And again the white splash of the lightning on the ground: but nothing moves. And again the long, rattling, instantaneous volleying of the thunder, in the darkness. The crowd is panting with fear, as the lightning again strikes white, and something again seems to burst in the forest, as the thunder crashes.

At last, into the motionlessness of the storm, in rushes the wind, with the fiery flying of bits of ice, and the sudden sea-like roaring of the pine-trees. The crowd winces and draws back, as the bits of ice hit in the face like fire. The roar of the trees is so great, it becomes like another silence. And through it is heard the crashing and splintering of timber, as the hurricane concentrates upon the hill.

Down comes the hail, in a roar that covers every other sound, threshing ponderously upon the ground and the roofs and the trees. And as the crowd surges irresistibly into the interior of the building, from the crushing of this ice-fall, still amid the sombre hoarseness sounds the tinkle and crackle of things breaking.

After an eternity of dread, it ends suddenly. Outside is a faint gleam of yellow light, over the snow and the endless *débris* of twigs and things broken. It is very cold, with the atmosphere of ice and deep water. The forest looks wan, above the white earth, where the ice-balls lie in their myriads, six inches deep, littered with all the twigs and things they have broken.

"Yes! Yes!" say the men, taking sudden courage as the yellow light comes into the air. "Now we can go!"

The first brave ones emerge, picking up the big hail-stones, pointing to the overthrown tables. Some, however, do not linger. They hurry to the funicular station, to see if the apparatus is still working.

The funicular station is on the north side of the hill. The men come back, saying there is no one there. The crowd begins to emerge upon the wet, crunching whiteness of the hail, spreading around in curiosity, waiting for the men who operate the funicular.

On the south side of the outlook tower two bodies lay in the cold but thawing hail. Both men were dead. But the lightning had completely removed the clothing from the legs of one man, so that he was naked from the hips down. There he lay, his face sideways on the snow, and two drops of blood running from his nose into his big, blonde, military moustache. He lay there near the votive stone of the Mercury. His companion, a young man, lay face downwards, a few yards behind him.

The sun began to emerge. The crowd gaped in dread, afraid to touch the bodies of the men. Why had they, the dead funicular men, come round to this side of the hill, anyhow?

The funicular would not work. Something had happened to it in the storm. The crowd began to wind down the bare hill, on the slippery ice. Everywhere the earth bristled with broken pine-boughs and twigs. But the bushes and the leafy trees were stripped absolutely bare, to a miracle. The lower earth was leafless and naked as in winter.

"Absolute winter!" murmured the crowd, as they hurried, frightened, down the steep, winding descent, extricating themselves from the fallen pine-branches.

Meanwhile the sun began to steam in great heat.

ART

THE NEW TITIAN AT THE NATIONAL GALLERY

THE recently acquired Titian now on show in the National Gallery will cause a sensation to lovers of art, as welcome as it is surprising. The sad experience of recent years had led one to suppose that the direction of the National Gallery was converted to the policy of buying historical specimens, rather than works of art. And now suddenly we are refreshed by the production of a masterpiece of the highest quality. Even to our national collection this is a capital addition, and it is no small pleasure to be able to congratulate so wholeheartedly all those concerned in its acquisition.

In general the National Gallery is strong on the Venetian school, and Titian might even have been considered well represented, but when we see this we realize that no one who derived his notion of Titian only from the National Gallery could have been said to know Titian. It is true that since the Mond pictures came to the nation we have seen something of Titian's very latest phase, and the Madonna of that collection contains passages of marvellous beauty, but it shows him at a time when even his superhuman vitality was lowered, when he was obliged to compensate by sheer acquired science for some failing of hand and eye. But here in the "Trinity" we have Titian twenty years earlier at the very height of his powers. It is a finished sketch on a smaller scale for the great picture now in the Prado which Charles V. had commissioned from Titian in 1558. The theme and probably the iconographic details for this picture were dictated by Charles V. himself, and he took the keenest interest in its execution. It represents God the Father and Christ seated on clouds with the Dove hovering between and above them. Beneath in two vast ascending curves are the Patriarchs, Prophets, and Saints. From the left-hand rank the Virgin Mary steps out as though to mount upwards towards the cloud-throne and intercede for the souls of Charles V. and his family who appear to the right. Charles himself is clothed in his white shroud and kneels in supplication. His wife and Philip II. appear behind him.

Charles V. from the first destined this picture to accompany him to his projected retreat at Yuste. He gazed on it there till the day of his death and left directions, in a special codicil to his will, that he should be buried in the convent of Yuste and that the picture should be placed on the high altar. It was, however, removed with his body to the Escorial by Philip II.

It gives one a vivid idea of the convenient compromises and happy inconsistencies of the Renaissance that the gloomily religious Charles V. could demand from Titian's frankly pagan genius the pictorial expression of an idea which was to bring him at once spiritual support and esthetic pleasure. Titian's vivid realization of the theme served, one supposes, as a kind of assurance of Charles's reception in the next world and as a sensual satisfaction for what remained of this.

It was no light task then that Charles imposed on Titian, but he came through it triumphantly. The National Gallery picture is a finished study or trial piece for the final work, which is on a much larger scale with figures of life-size. There is said to be a still earlier version, so that this intermediate one probably corresponds to the moment when the idea first became perfectly clear to the artist's imagination, but when the creative impulse was still actively at work. It certainly bears that impress for, as far as my memory of the Prado picture goes, this seems to be more intensely vital, more vigorous and inspired in its handling, and executed with a more entrancing freedom of touch. It is in this respect particularly that we may congratulate ourselves on having acquired a sketch. I have said this was done at the height of Titian's powers, but the date 1554 might seem to be rather early for such to be the case, and there are certainly several rather dull and uninspired pictures of this period. But here in the freedom and inspiration of a sketch Titian antedates his own later development, so that it is hard to believe that it is nearly

contemporary with the Venus and Adonis of which we possess a version fairly near to the original and with some passages perhaps by Titian himself, so vastly fresher, more vital, and more modern, in the best sense, is this study.

It is perhaps most in the astonishing gaiety and freshness of the colour that this is even for Titian a surprising revelation. The ultramarines of the two seated figures of the Trinity, the Virgin's mantle, and the clear patch of sky in the centre are clearer and cooler than was usual with Titian, who, by the by, was a little addicted to an abuse of this colour. Even here it almost verges on a merely decorative charm, but is just saved by the fascinating variation of Isaiah's garment where it takes on a purplish grey quality. The blues are thus ingeniously used to accentuate one of the great lines of the composition, by leading us from the bottom right-hand corner in a large curve to the left and back again to the top centre. This curve complements and balances another great crescent leading outwards to the right, strongly accented by the arms of the Magdalen, and culminating in the figure of Charles V. The splendid figure of Moses forms the nodal point of these two curves. Titian was well inspired to base so complex and so "numerous" a composition upon so simple, so easily grasped a theme. It saved him from the fate of Michelangelo in his "Last Judgment," where the multiplicity and equality of many groups, each a supreme invention, baffles the eye and denies any clear unity. Titian, too, scored heavily in such a composition by the range of his chiaroscuro, and here he has allowed the most surprising effects by means of the high pitch of his lights which everywhere tend towards white. It is this, perhaps more than anything else, which gives the picture such a modern air which makes one instinctively think of Renoir.

In one or two places the composition, crowded and agitated as it is, seems to lack perfect coherence. This is especially the case in the middle of the left-hand curve where the sequence is too often broken, and is traversed by too many movements across the general direction. But in the main the elements are tied together by a flowing and irresistible rhythmic urge. In this, too, Titian was fortunate as compared with Michelangelo, for by 1550 such a theme could be treated in a frankly rhetorical, almost operatic, fashion in which these contorted and exaggerated, these literally sprawling gestures could pass almost unperceived. Michelangelo no doubt initiated this conception of form, but his more serious and convinced attitude to the religious content restrained his esthetic inclinations. He began the Baroque, but he would have reproved the theatrical and rhetorical implications it led to, and so successfully exploited. Titian could afford to treat even Charles V.'s religious convictions in a lighter spirit.

ROGER FRY.

THE DRAMA

THE OLD WORLD AND THE NEW

Strand: "Twelve Miles Out." By W. A. MCGUIRE.

Globe Theatre: "Give and Take." By AARON HOFFMAN.

Prince of Wales Theatre: "Tuppence Coloured." By EDWARD WILBRAHAM.

IT is a comfort to be able to say for once that of the three dramatists who appear at the head of this column the Englishman provides the best entertainment. Americans have given us so much to be grateful for this last year or so, that it is a rare pleasure once more to pat the old country on the back. We can guess the answer of America, were she disposed to make one. "Yes, the plays are American all right, but the acting and production are English. We act and produce so much better than you do that we can hardly be blamed for the dullness of 'Twelve Miles Out' or 'Give and Take.'" The reply is not a bad one; these two plays are poorly produced and poorly acted. Compare the production and acting with that of "Broadway" and you will blush. Still, every allowance being made, they are two rotten bad plays. "Twelve Miles Out" was advertised as being about drink:

as a matter of fact it was about a "pure blonde," over whose body various old-fashioned ruffians cursed, fought, swore, and drank whisky. The terrific long speeches were quite remarkably tedious and old-fashioned. There was none of the new twentieth-century hardness and snap which, despite the poverty of much of the dialogue, shone through "Broadway." The first act, which really did deal with drink and gave us the only competent piece of acting, that of Mr. Denys Blakelock as the young wastrel "Chuck," was quite exciting, but as the weight of the story gradually shifted from alcohol to women, the interest progressively decayed and we ended on complete bathos. Apparently "Twelve Miles Out" ran for four years in New York. It is comforting to know that even New Yorkers can be silly. No American producer, no American company could make a reputable entertainment of "Twelve Miles Out."

No information is provided as to the success in America of "Give and Take," and hence no explanation can be found for its transportation to England. A sillier contribution to political thought can hardly be imagined. The weighting of the evidence against the workmen was both idiotic and offensive, and all the more irritating for being meant to be "damned statesmanlike." "Rattling Good Moral," I heard several Captains of Industry mutter in their neighbouring stalls. If American business men are really as stupid as Mr. Hoffman makes out, there may be some hope for British trade after all. The acting was on occasion high-spirited enough, but provided no adequate reason for visiting the Globe Theatre. The whole business is idiotic and amateurish from start to finish.

"Tuppence Coloured" has already been noticed in this journal on its production by a Sunday evening society. It can now be seen, with much the same cast, at the Prince of Wales Theatre, and it is well worth a visit. I am no friend to an arrogant aristocracy, but I cannot but feel that democratic reaction has gone too far, and that Lord Lathom would have had a far better Press, had it not been for his shameful birth. "Tuppence Coloured" is not a great work of art, but it is a very amusing, often quite well written and justly observed play. If people want to know what the upper classes are like they might do worse than go and find out at "Tuppence Coloured." The main psychological interest of the play lies in the feelings of a wife married to a thorough brute and yet being genuinely fond of him. Had he turned out to be a jolly good fellow at bottom after all, I suspect the play would have been more genuinely popular. Hence it may be deduced that the theme is not sentimental and is truthful in its presentation. Also it shows considerable theatrical capacity. Epigrams and situations both "come off," and the invention of the wicked old dowager, who has discovered what pain she can always give by the simple expedient of thinking out loud, was most ingenious. The production was rather remiss. The first act especially was taken far too slowly, and Miss Marie Lohr's final outburst, the result of years of suppressed unhappiness, tailed off into a rather tedious exegesis. The acting was, however, on the whole well up to the mark, and interest is sustained to the end, the third act, and this is most unusual, being, perhaps, the best. Whatever may be the faults of "Tuppence Coloured," it is far above the average level of boulevard play, and deserves considerably more success than it seems likely to get.

FRANCIS BIRRELL.

PLAYS AND PICTURES

THE outstanding feature of Mr. Playfair's production of "The Beaux' Stratagem" at the Lyric, Hammersmith, is Miss Edith Evans's delightful rendering of the part of Mrs. Sullen. This accomplished actress can impress her personality on the audience without spoiling the part that she is playing, and can do justice to the good things that Farquhar has given her to say, without forgetting the character she represents. Even the famous Mrs. Oldfield can hardly have surpassed Miss Evans in charm and distinction. For the rest, the characters in

this revival appear in costumes of a later date than that of the original production, "for no better reason," according to a producer's note on the programme, "than that of urgent personal convenience." Otherwise, the production is straightforward and commonplace enough. Those who like "Restoration" comedy can count on a pleasant evening at Hammersmith; and it would be worth a visit, apart from Miss Evans, to see how much rich humour Mr. Miles Malleon can get out of, or put into, the part of Scrub, Squire Sullen's servant. A word should be said too for Miss Dorothy Hope's performance as Cherry, the Innkeeper's Daughter—an attractive baggage, who says her Lover's Catechism very prettily.

Shakespeare's "Richard III.," at the Old Vic, takes about three and a half hours to act, but the audience seemed to enjoy every moment of it. I am not surprised. Hazlitt many years ago pronounced it a bad play to read, but a good play to act. That is the queer thing about it: for all its manifest absurdities, it acts superbly. It "goes," and the monstrous villainy of Richard is depicted so wholeheartedly and lightheartedly that only a very dull dog would not enjoy himself. And to-day if you want to see "Richard III." acted and produced exactly as it should be acted and produced, you must go to the Old Vic. There is no flummery and no nonsense in this production; the play is taken at a right good pace, and allowed to make its own appeal. The audience, even, is the right audience, Shakespeare's own audience on the Surrey side. And the acting is admirable. Mr. Baliol Holloway was almost perfect as Richard, and seemed to inspire the rest of the company to be spirited without being exaggerated. Miss Grace Allardyce gave a lesson to actors and actresses—which Miss Dorothy Massingham might study with advantage—of how much more effective, even in curses, restraint is than shrieking and over-emphasis.

Among the new features of the B.B.C. programmes is a number called "The Foundations of Music." From 7.15 to 7.25 a performance is given of some short classical work of real importance. The emphasis is laid on the music itself rather than on its rendering, and so far the name of the performer has not been revealed. During the month of January, Bach's forty-eight Preludes and Fugues have been played, and these ten minutes of the day have always been pleasant. It is a pity that owing to the exigencies of time a Prelude has sometimes been separated from its Fugue—for these are *real* preludes—but it was perhaps unavoidable. The anonymous performer was a little too free with his rubatos, but on the whole the renderings were intelligent and pleasing, the finger-work being exceptionally good. A delightful Light Symphony Concert was given on January 25th, conducted by Mr. Frank Bridge, in which Mme. Elizabeth Schumann sang "Deh, vieni, non tardar" (in German) most exquisitely, and brought off a *tour de force* in her performance of Graham Peel's "The Early Morning."

Things to see and hear in the coming week:—

Saturday, February 5.—Marjorie Hayward and Tessa Richardson, Violin and Song Recital, at the Museum Lecture Theatre, Victoria and Albert Museum, 8.

Solito de Solis, Pianoforte Recital, at the Æolian Hall, 8.

Sunday, February 6.—Dr. Cyril Norwood on "English Public School Life and Character," at the Indian Students' Union, 5.

Mr. C. Delisle Burns on "The Psychology of Dreams," at South Place, 11.

Repertory Players in "Chinook," at the Strand.

Monday, February 7.—Alfild Sandby's "Life of Hans Andersen," at the New Scala (Special Performance). Fiona Macleod's "The Immortal Hour," and Maeterlinck's "The Sightless," at the Festival Theatre, Cambridge, February 7th-12th.

Tuesday, February 8.—Professor J. L. Brierly on "International Law and Theories of the State," at University College, 5.30.
 Mr. N. M. Penzer on "The Study of Folk-Tale Motif," at the Royal Asiatic Society, 4.30.
 Mr. C. E. M. Joad on "Vitalism and Emergence," at King's College, 5.30.
 Wednesday, February 9.—Dr. Edward F. Armstrong on "The Romance of the Organic Chemical Industry," at the Royal Society of Arts, 8.
 Thursday, February 10.—"Mignon" (Thomas), at the Old Vic, 7.30.
 Mr. Eustace Miles on "Catarrh and Colds, and their Causes," at 40, Chandos Street, 8.45 and 6.15.
 Literary Discussion, "The Chronicles of Barset," at the Guildhouse, Eccleston Square, 8.
 Friday, February 11.—English Association Lecture by Mr. Michael Sadleir on "The Northanger Novels and Others: Notes on the Gothic Romance," in the Westminster School Hall, 5.30.
 Professor Gilbert Murray's translation of the "Electra" of Euripides at the Rudolf Steiner Hall, 8.
 Elsie Playfair, Violin Recital, Wigmore Hall, 8.15.
 A Debate between the University of London and a debating team from the University of Sydney. Mr. Amery in the Chair, at the London School of Economics, 8.
 OMICRON.

ON THE PLATFORM

He walked with slow but unavenging tread,
 Passing the barrier with a careless air,
 Under the high, grey, noisy dome of smoke,
 Where travel knots the centre of its web.
 He did not speak for all his weight of thought
 And, as he walked, a sudden pigeon, led
 From the platform end in strong desire of hope,
 Towards a spirit burdened with new grief,
 Flew long and low.

This joy that he'd denied,
 Flying to meet the bastion of his head,—
 Breasting his passage in the trend of day,—
 I almost thought that it would touch his face,
 With dusty wings spread wide and beak stretched out,
 Hungry to see the pageant of its death
 Writ on the forehead of a sorrowing man.
 He, seeing it through the prism of his grief,
 Lifted a hand, responsive to the flight;
 But so resolved on what his soul must dare,
 In rigid violence, to reckon with,
 That in the gesture burnt no fire of life,
 No zeal to catch what seemed within his reach,
 To give his act a reason and intent.
 Unwilling to endure the level of his eyes,
 The bird, as if in fright, rose suddenly
 And swept above his head,—then curved away.
 He did not turn, but dropped his hand and went
 With quickened steps towards the waiting train;—
 Nor looked across the writhing whorls of smoke,
 To where the pigeon, poised above the clock,
 Fluttered to rest upon the minute-hand.

EDWARD SACKVILLE-WEST.

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THE WORLD OF BOOKS

JOHN MORLEY

THE reviews of Mr. F. W. Hirst's "Early Life and Letters of John Morley" (Macmillan, two vols., 28s.), which I have happened to see have not been very appreciative, and my impression is that neither the biographee nor the biographer is getting a very good Press. There is, however a good deal to be said for both of them. Mr. Hirst has not, it is true, arranged his material as well as he might have done, and the chronology is often confused or confusing, but he was right to make it a long book and to include the great bulk of Morley's letters. Only in that way was it possible to obtain a true portrait, a life-size character, of the John Morley of 1860 to 1885. The result is, I think, a remarkably interesting book, interesting not only because of the portrait of Morley which it gives us, but also because of the deeper insight which it gives us into the political thought of a period of great political importance.

* * *

Nearly the whole of these two volumes are occupied with that part of Morley's life when he was engaged in journalism, as editor of the *FORTNIGHTLY* and the *PALL MALL GAZETTE*. It was the part of his life too, in which, rather slowly, his political beliefs were incubated and which made him a party politician. His letters, particularly those to Frederic Harrison, give a remarkable record of this process by which the journalist caterpillar became the editorial chrysalis and finally the butterfly politician. Not that the metaphor is really appropriate to John Morley, though it might be to ninety-nine men out of a hundred who have passed through the three stages. And here we have the reason why most people active in literature, politics, and journalism find themselves rather out of sympathy with him. Every reviewer of these letters, whom I have read, calls Morley a doctrinaire, and the word is used either apologetically or depreciatingly. But Morley was a doctrinaire in the best sense of the word, as journalist, editor, and politician, and in that sense the word ought to be a great compliment. In almost every other country than England Morley's doctrinairism would receive the highest praise. For it consisted in the continual application of a keen intellect and a singularly impartial judgment to the tangled facts and complicated problems of society and politics. Morley was by no means a cold, passionless man. He was irritable and irascible; politically his feelings were quickly and deeply stirred. But his reason told him that passion and prejudice, when directed by ignorance, are not safe guides in practical affairs. No doubt, as in the case of all human beings, his feelings guided him along a particular path; but he always, and particularly in politics, tried to find a broad principle based upon knowledge and reason.

* * *

In these two volumes you can watch the gradual evolution of Morley's political views. But what is even more interesting, you watch the creation of that philosophic Liberalism which was such a powerful influence in the politics of the last half of the last century. Mill and Morley, the "doctrinaires," Bright and Cobden, the practical politicians, were the men who really created English nineteenth-century Liberalism. By 1880 Liberalism had a definite political programme rooted deeply in "Liberal" principles—democracy, liberty, free trade, free and undenominational education, peace, non-intervention, anti-imperialism.

And Morley, the journalist and editor, had as much to do with the formation and diffusion of the principles and programme as any man. He was not, in the modern sense of the word, a great journalist or a great editor. "He was not a born journalist," said Stead, who was his second in command on the *PALL MALL GAZETTE*; "he had no eye for news, and he was totally devoid of the journalistic instinct." When one remembers the facts about modern journalism, to which I referred last week, the opinion throws light not only upon Morley but upon Stead, one of the four creators of modern journalism. Modern journalism was born at the end of 1881; Morley gave up the editorship of the *PALL MALL GAZETTE* in 1883. According to the standards of the new journalism and of Stead, Morley was not a great editor; but he has claims to be a great editor according to the pre-1881 standards. On the *FORTNIGHTLY* he gathered around him a group of writers who made that paper one of real influence. Influence in those days was not measured by circulation, and the circulation of the *FORTNIGHTLY* measured by our standards was negligible: Morley raised it from 1,400 in 1867 to 2,500 in 1872. But the paper had already by 1872 an influence out of all proportion to those 2,500 copies sold monthly. In its pages Morley and his collaborators worked out the principles and, to a great extent, the programme of Liberalism and the Liberal Party. It may be difficult for the journalist and newspaper proprietor of to-day to believe, but it is none the less true, that the doctrinaire Morley and the *FORTNIGHTLY* with its paltry 2,500 circulation had more practical effect upon the politics of 1870 to 1890 than any proprietor or editor with a paper of over a million circulation has had upon the politics of the last twenty years.

* * *

As a journalist, a writer, a politician, and a character, Morley comes extremely well out of this "Life and Letters." In private life he had a character of considerable charm, a little subdued in tone, and somewhat oppressed by the inhibitions and prohibitions of his age. There is something peculiarly pleasant, for instance, in the story of himself which Morley writes in a letter to Harrison: of how, after spending three-quarters of an hour with Carlyle at Chelsea, and on his way back past St. James's Hall, seeing that he was just in time for a Mozart quartet, he dashed in in order that Mozart might take the taste of Carlyle out of his mouth. In public life his instincts were all for the things that make for decency and civilization. But temperamentally he was not a party politician, and he mistrusted instinct and passion as guides for political action. It was this mistrust which was at the root of his so-called doctrinairism. In politics, he wrote as early as 1866, we are concerned "not with abstract truth, but with practical morality," and he was always seeking the principles of practical morality which could and should be applied to immediate problems. In these letters and in his published works, from "Burke" to "Cobden," which are covered by the years 1866 to 1885, you can watch him working out the principles of practical morality which he considered applicable to the political problems of his time. In the process of thus forming his own political convictions, he helped to work out the principles of Liberalism, and finally the Liberal programme, of the eighties.

LEONARD WOOLF.

REVIEWS

MAUPASSANT

Guy de Maupassant. A Biographical Study. By ERNEST BOYD. (Knopf. 21s.)

If a book is called "Jack Johnson: A Biographical Study," instead of "The Life of Jack Johnson," the reader must be prepared for the worst. Mr. Ernest Boyd begins his book: "In 1850 the subconscious could still call its private life its own, and psycho-analysis had not yet enabled dirty souls to be decorously washed in public." There is no other indication of what year Maupassant was born, and it was only by consulting the standard French Life that I could be sure that 1850 was a hint and not merely a round number. Beginning upon these lines Mr. Boyd naturally does not think it necessary to indicate in footnotes the sources of his numerous quotations or to provide a bibliography. For the benefit of his readers, therefore, one may explain that the information he gives is to be found chiefly in Baron Albert Lombroso's "Souvenirs sur Maupassant," in "Souvenirs sur Guy de Maupassant," by François Tassart, his valet, and in Edouard Maynial's "La Vie et L'Œuvre de Guy de Maupassant." It also contains quotations from the Goncourt Journals and from Madame Lecomte de Nouy's "En regardant passer la vie." The unscholarliness of Mr. Boyd's book is the more regrettable as it does contain most of the important facts about Maupassant which have been published. Moreover, on the rare occasions when he allows himself to deviate from biography into criticism his remarks are sensible and perceptive. Perhaps he over-emphasizes the erotic interest of Maupassant's writings: one feels that the book is intended for an American public which finds the translations agreeably "smutty." But Maupassant's insatiable passion for women was indeed a principal impulse in his life: and the cause of his early death.

He always denied with energy the right of the public to any knowledge of an artist's private life; the few letters of his that have been printed seem deliberately impersonal; and after his death his mother continued to guard his secrets jealously. She was one of those fanatical mothers which French family life produces, and when the claims of his illegitimate children were urged upon her: "These," she said, pointing to his books, "are the only children of his that I recognize." And while his stories must still command a considerable sale, his children are said to be living in humble circumstances in Paris and Chartres. The story of his life, in so far as it is known, is not very eventful. We see him as a clever and rebellious schoolboy; as the favourite pupil of Flaubert (the most romantic episode in whose life was his friendship with Maupassant's uncle, Alfred le Poitevin); as the *jeune premier* of the Naturalist Movement, outshining all his collaborators in "Les Soirées de Médan"; as a hearty young man equally proud of his prowess as an oar and as a lover; as a fashionable writer with a yacht and villas at Etretat and Cannes; and for the last two tragic years as the almost bestial inmate of Dr. Blanche's private asylum at Passy. In his preface to "Pierre et Jean," itself avowedly a psychological novel, he defines the limitations of the *genre*. "It is always ourselves that we expose in the form of a king, a murderer, a thief, or a respectable man, of a courtesan, a nun, a flapper, or a fishwife, for we are bound to put the question to ourselves as follows: 'If I were a king, a murderer, a thief, a courtesan, a nun, a flapper, or a fishwife, what should I do, what should I think, how should I act?'" And he concludes: "The art consists of not letting the reader recognize this 'I' under the various masks that we use to hide it." But he did not always possess this art: no novelist, at least no good novelist, ever did. And the sensitive reader of Maupassant's works has a far completer idea of the man than the other biographical facts can give.

He brought an acutely observant eye to a very wide variety of environments. There were at least six worlds which he could describe with intimate knowledge; and his stories are almost always set in one or other of them. The Norman peasant, the Norman country gentleman, the civil servant, the journalist, the prostitute, and the man or woman of fashion, are all familiar to him in their gestures, their turns of speech, and their habits of mind. But certain emotions, which appear again and again in outwardly the most different characters, reveal by his preoccupation with

them, the ruling passions of his life. First, there is the savage love of shooting and fishing; and closely allied to this the continual need to pursue women, regarded rather as quarries than objects of affection; then comes the sharp sense for money, a proverbially Norman trait, and the desire for all the material prizes of ambition; there is the deep feeling for nature, particularly for rivers and the sea in the early morning or at sunset; and lastly there is a passionate love, often developing into fear, of solitude, and a preoccupation amounting to an obsession with the ideas of madness and death. Art, in any of its forms, seems to have mattered little to him; politics, science, history, friendship, equally little. I do not imagine that he was an interesting man.

Is he a very interesting artist? Apart from his sharp sight, he had one gift magnificently developed, the ability to invent and recount a story. And one's estimate of him as an artist depends upon the importance one attaches to this ability. At present it is out of fashion, and it may remain so. We demand of a work of art the excellences of design and texture which enable it to give repeated pleasure, and Maupassant's stories, like Sapper's, depend too much upon their plots for us to reread them very profitably until we have forgotten them. Moreover, they are over explicit, and, unlike the works of the great novelists, do not extort ever greater admiration from us as our experience of life increases. Maupassant is, indeed, above all, a writer for adolescents, and I believe that the affection in which many of us hold him is largely a relic of our first reading of him. At one time his stories have revealed life to us: they do not later deepen our sense of it. And the large part that mere mechanism plays in his work is laid bare in his novels. Unlike short stories, they cannot depend upon the swift and surprising presentation of a dramatic situation, and the space is filled out with the description of material details which in its boring elaboration anticipates the worst work of the English Edwardians. Palm-filled boudoirs and preposterous bodices are catalogued with a care that makes the illustrations peculiarly superfluous. The characters are all of a piece, mechanical even in their caprices, limited in their movements like men on a chessboard. Never do we recognize ourselves in them, never does our pity for them become generalized in pity for ourselves and all our miserable fellows. Nor, on the other hand, has Maupassant's imagination the wings to carry us into another world. In spite of the fruitful expeditions into the supernatural which we owe to the malady he died of, Maupassant's writings are essentially realistic. He lacked the most important gift: unlike Zola, he could not paint larger than life; unlike Flaubert, he was not a poet. A few of his stories, "Boule de Suif," "La Maison Tellier," "Le Horla," leave a permanent impression upon our memories. But the final epitaph upon him must be, I think, that inspired by the jealousy of Edmond de Goncourt: "Maupassant est un très remarquable *novellière*, un très charmant conteur de nouvelles, mais un styliste, un grand écrivain, non, non!"

RAYMOND MORTIMER.

THE IDEA OF DRAMA

Drama. By ASHLEY DUKES. Home University Series. (Williams & Norgate. 2s.)

A Short View of the English Stage. By JAMES AGATE. (Jenkins. 2s. 6d.)

John Galsworthy as a Dramatic Artist. By R. H. COATS. (Duckworth. 6s.)

To say that the drama's laws the drama's patrons give is much like saying that the man's madness is proof of the dog's rabies. Often, of course, it is the dog that dies, for it has not been infected with the madness that opens the doors of Helicon. But what precisely this madness is, and how the bite takes effect, is one of the standing puzzles of the æsthetic philosopher, and the despair of the commercial manager. For something occurs which does not occur in the other arts. Whatever it may be that stirs our impulses, whatever mixture of sound and movement, of action and words it may be that brings us to any particular attitude, we are at the same time illuded and not illuded; we believe and yet we do not believe. If we do not believe in the reality of Lear, Lear is nothing to us. If we were to believe in him as we do in the approaching motor-bus, we should be impelled to action as useful as that of skipping across the

road. The picture. an explanation of course, Cleopatra thing as removed accept M. an account that of so thing about and now, It is, of the whole disguise symbols "symbolic"

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road. This sort of thing does not occur with a book or a picture. As far as the latter is concerned, we can guess at an explanation: the time factor does not come in. A book, of course, is obviously symbol. Plutarch's description of Cleopatra's suicide—that is, a page of print—is not the same thing as Cleopatra dying before us on the stage. A book is removed in time. Or it is removed in space, for we may accept M. Ramon Fernandez's distinction of a tale being an account of something that has happened, and a novel that of something which is happening now. The important thing about the drama, then, is that it is happening here and now, that it is presented as a fact and not as a symbol. It is, of course, a symbol of the author's intuitions, but the whole effort of the dramatist and of the actors is to disguise this, and to force the audience to accept the symbols as fact. That is one of the reasons why the "symbolic" drama is nearly always a failure.

For a play to succeed some particular tension has to be created, not so much a "suspension of disbelief" as the creation of a belief that the dramatist's intuition corresponds with some exciting emotional reality outside the theatre. A crowd-emotion note has to be hit. The case is plain when a patriotic play is performed during a period of war fever: a new reality is created within the walls of the theatre. In a much subtler form it is created when an actor on the stage does not recognize his fellow-actor as the man he has just joked with behind the scenes, but regards him as a totally different person. From back scene to back row of pit, some atmosphere of a new reality has to be created.

The means, unfortunately, are many, and the mechanism has often been mistaken for the thing. It is not words alone that can work the miracle, not now, though so long as the drama was liturgical this may have been possible. Surprise is a small element; how little it matters we know, since we go to familiar plays; but expectation still retains its force, as it does in liturgy. Familiarity, indeed, is a great bond, and a popular play must contain familiar elements, at least in its early scenes, while at the end it must be at once new and eternal. But this sense of generalization can itself be obtained in several ways, is itself perhaps an outcome of the horde feeling. An appeal to popular prejudice, concentration upon a hero, pity for a heroine, a tune heard off stage, all these and many others are part of the mechanism. Both Mr. Dukes and Mr. Agate play around these notions, but the latter is closer to the mark when he speaks of the necessary disposition in an audience than Mr. Dukes is when he appeals to the "spirit of the theatre." That phrase cuts very little ice; it describes, indeed, the ice that has to be cut.

The dramatist is not paramount (it is heresy to cry *Alas!*), but he must always be the most important factor, for, as Molière remarked, human beings understand each other by gestures, and words are the most easily understood of all gestures. Actors and producer are the dramatist's medium, but they also have personality: they are a fluid medium, and only the greatest artists are selfless enough to be perfect transmitters. In much modern work (and in much ancient also, that part of it which is dead), the play would fade to inanition were it not for the vitality of the actors. Again, the drama is the most impure of all the arts, and for that reason its lines must be boldly drawn, it must be composed in big masses; and because it must appeal primarily to the imagination it must be poetic. Only by being poetic can it survive its impurity. By poetic is not, of course, meant verse, or pretty-pretty, but a simplification to essentials. The poetry of Shakespeare does not lie in his anthology pieces, but in his stark simplicity, his terrifying directness. The poetry "pieces" are merely solvents, hypnotics if you will. But the main poetry of a play lies in its architectonics, in its plot, to which the characters give flesh.

Mr. Coats seems to recognize the importance of plot, yet, like Mr. Agate, he is too concerned with character; but, indeed, his book fails to illuminate at all: it is not analysis so much as ordered description. The only purpose it could serve would be to enable people who had not read Mr. Galsworthy to talk about him as though they had. Whether this is an advantage may be left to the social philosophers to decide. Mr. Agate in a sentence or two gives far more than Mr. Coats in his whole book. "Mr. Galsworthy," he says, "is a moderate of the utmost violence, holding a

middle line as meticulously as a drunken man," and he develops his thesis crisply. "A Short View" is an enlightening history of British drama since 1900. Accepting Mr. Agate's judgment (one need only differ on points of detail), we see how, owing to the pernicious systems of sub-letting, anything but tosh is gradually being driven from the theatre. On the other hand, the drama itself was never more alive. It dwells in private or other societies, suburban and provincial theatres, and elsewhere, and if only the cultured public would go to see good plays as soon as they are put on, there would be hope, for short full runs would pay. As it is the big public must be got at, and this in theatres at prohibitive rents, so that long runs are essential; and that means tosh. Mr. Agate's contribution to the main problems is an analysis of the spirit of an audience.

Mr. Ashley Dukes is always at the edge of the problems, but he never probes. His book is an excellent digest of obvious facts under convenient headings. In so short a book, dealing with the drama from A to Z, crosswise and back again, he has too often had to compress into a sentence matter which really needs a chapter. The result is that many of his statements are first approximations, thus we have a continual sense of slight falsification. To say that the form of Attic comedy was moulded on the lines of tragedy is a remark which makes one wonder whether Mr. Dukes means what Mr. Cornford holds, or whether he does not. Those whose business is with the drama can see that Mr. Dukes is aware of all this: allowing for his difficulties, he has done his work capably. But this book is not intended for those who know; it is an introduction for those approaching the drama. One cannot but feel that so large a subject should not have been undertaken on so small a scale: this bird's-eye survey is too much like a map, and through this book we get no closer to the idea of drama, of what is beneath the map. He says many good things by the way, but the book is rather on things connected with the drama than on the drama itself. It is a pity Mr. Dukes did not decide from which angle to tackle his subject, for he has the necessary equipment in knowledge and penmanship.

BONAMY DOBRÉE.

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THE CONSTITUTION OF THE STARS

The Internal Constitution of the Stars. By A. S. EDDINGTON. (Cambridge University Press. 25s.)

THE recent theories as to the nature of the atom have a great bearing on the difficult problem of the nature of stars. We can ascertain the mass and the radius of a star and the amount of radiation which pours out of it. Gravity holds the star together, but it has only comparatively recently been recognized that radiation exerts pressure, and the radiation from the inside of the star tends to keep the star apart. Up to a certain size this radiation pressure is negligible in comparison with the force of gravitation, but above a certain size the radiation pressure will become so large that gravitation is negligible in comparison with it. Between these two limits we find the stars. The mass of nearly all stars lies between one half and fifty times that of the sun. Most stars are probably a perfect gas, so that, in accordance with a well-known law, if we know the pressure and the density at any point we can calculate the temperature. The pressure at any point will be just sufficient to support the weight of the layers above; the temperature distribution should maintain itself, although heat is continually flowing from one part of a star to another. If we knew the chemical composition of the inside of a star, we could then make our calculations; but the spectroscope only tells us something about the elements which are at the outside of a star. The way in which this apparently fundamental difficulty is got over is most interesting. We want to know two things—the molecular weight and the ratio of the specific heat of the material at constant pressure to that at constant volume. Here our recent knowledge of the atom comes into play. An atom, we believe, consists of a heavy nucleus, with a number of light electrons forming a sort of planetary system about it. At high temperatures the atom is ionized—that is, many of the electrons have gone off and are enjoying independent careers. The consequence of this is that the average molecular weight (if by molecule we mean both an ionized atom and a free electron) will not be much above two. As luck would have it we also know the value of the other constant which we require within fairly narrow limits, for it cannot be greater than five-thirds, and if it were less than four-thirds the star would be unstable. Hence the data are sufficient to a considerable degree of approximation. It will be seen that the theory turns on our knowledge of ionization and radiation, and for this reason supersedes earlier theories. It helps to explain some startling facts. There is a type of star known as a white dwarf whose density is more than a thousand times that of anything we know on earth. We naturally wonder how the atoms could be packed so tight as to produce such a density; and what is even more surprising is that stars of great density seem to behave like a nearly perfect gas. The answer is that when the atom has lost most of its planetary electrons its size is so much reduced that we can pack, perhaps, a million times as many of these ionized atoms into the same space as we could have packed the un-ionized ones. But the electrons which have left the atoms are still buzzing about and form a sort of shield which prevents the ionized atoms from repelling one another as strongly as they would otherwise do. This raises the question—how has it come about that these dense stars exist? It is mysterious that the companion of Sirius should be more than a thousand times as dense as Sirius. In fact the more we learn the odder it all seems, and it is one of the most delightful things about Professor Eddington's book that it raises so many interesting problems. The subject is in its infancy, and in a short time the most recent developments of the Quantum Theory may again force us to change our point of view.

The quality of Professor Eddington's writings is now well known. His excellent wit and his engaging candour enliven his mathematics; he is a natural master of lucid exposition, so that even those of us who find the mathematics difficult can derive much instruction and great enjoyment from this remarkable book.

C. P. S.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY

Cambridge University: an Episodical History. By ARTHUR GRAY, M.A., Master of Jesus College. (Heffer. 15s.)

It is good to have this book in print again. When it was first published in 1912, it suffered from two slight drawbacks: in the first place, the title "Cambridge and Its Story" had been anticipated and a cancel title-sheet was accordingly printed (a point, by the way, which the bibliographically-minded will regret to note is unrecorded in the preface to the present edition); secondly, Mr. Maxwell Armfeld's illustrations had an exotic flavour which consorted ill with the graceful antiquarianism of the Master of Jesus. Ackermann, Le Keux, and Harraden provide much more suitable material for the new issue.

Of the many ways of approach which lie open to the university historian, the episodical method is probably the best for all save the professed student. In Cambridge we have, for annalistic reference, the invaluable Cooper; for encyclopædic detail there are the massive volumes of Mullinger—unhappily only a torso. But the questions that most of us want to ask are: What was Cambridge really like in the Middle Ages? Was it just a school for monks, or have we something more in common with it than, say, the Founder's Cup which we see once a year at Commemoration? How did an Elizabethan undergraduate behave? Did he play any games? When were examinations invented? Was the eighteenth-century don just a gluttonous pluralist? How did undergraduates spend their time before cricket and football and rowing were developed?

Those sons of Cambridge who are sufficiently interested in Alma Mater to ask questions such as these could not do better than read Mr. Gray's book. First, there is the story of the gradual consolidation of the "wandering scholars," with a sturdy refusal to accept Rashdall's theory that it was a migration from Oxford which led to the first permanent establishment of a university at Cambridge; then the story of the first colleges, the statutes of each showing their own distinctive features. In the chapter on Lancastrian Cambridge there is an admirably pithy account of the foundation of King's College. How many Cambridge graduates, how many resident dons even, know that the sole relic of Henry VI.'s collegiate building, apart from his chapel, consists of the back door of the University Library? It is a very noble door, certainly, but still a back door, the way through which is known only to members of the Library staff. Later comes Trinity, "the monument of a king's gratitude," with its generous provision of fellows and scholars and its terrifying curriculum:—

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Dr. Caius is quoted a little later with good effect:—

"In the year 1558 I was taken with a desire to revisit the ancient University, pleasant home of the Muses, and there to renew my acquaintance with the schools where in my happy youth I had been trained. . . . When I came there I was struck with the marvellous transformation which everything had undergone in my absence. Faces and things, manners and dress were new. I saw new looks; I heard a new pronunciation; the forms of teaching, learning, disputing, all were new. Not to mention all the novelties about me—and they were endless—I found scarcely a soul who either knew me or was known to me."

Here, at any rate, is something which does not change—the complaint of change uttered by every Cambridge man who revisits the place after an absence of twenty years.

In his later chapters Mr. Gray cleverly groups his pictures round such figures as Erasmus, Spenser, Milton, Bentley, Gray, Wordsworth, and Tennyson. To the story of Kit Marlowe he might, in this new edition, have appended a footnote indicating the happy discovery by Mr. Hotson of the authoritative account of Marlowe's death at the hands of one Ingram Frizer.

In a concluding chapter, entitled "Recentiora," Mr. Gray summarizes the effects of the new statutes upon the university. It is a thorny subject, and it is a pity that a book of this kind should end on a controversial note. To denounce

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the Commissioners as the destroyers of the college system may do very well in the correspondence columns of the TIMES, but such denunciation seems out of place in the pages of an episodic history written just as the new statutes are coming into operation. The historian of the future will no doubt devote a chapter to the 1926 statutes, but we take leave to prophesy that, whether he approves or whether he condemns them, he will have no occasion to chronicle the decay of college life.

SOCIALISM

The Breakdown of Socialism. By ARTHUR SHADWELL, M.A., M.D., LL.D., &c. (Benn. 10s. 6d.)

Marx, Lenin, and the Science of Revolution. By MAX EASTMAN. (Allen & Unwin. 7s. 6d.)

The Economic Consequences of Socialism. By GEORGE W. GOUGH. The Westminster Library. (Philip Allan. 3s. 6d.)

Capitalism is Socialism with Economic Adjustments. By J. TAYLOR PEDDIE. With a Foreword by GILBERT C. VYLE. (Longmans. 7s. 6d.)

CONTROVERSIES over Socialism are apt to be sham fights between a slogan and a bogey. Or else they are like a field-day at the end of which it is found that the armies have been manœuvring in different counties. Socialism can put up a case against the existing order which, though in some points extravagant, is fundamentally unanswerable. To this it adds a vague ideal of social well-being which is beyond reproach. Inevitably, therefore, the main battle is fought over details in the construction of an imaginary community, and we are given the futile spectacle of one side building a castle in the air to defend its city, while the enemy runs up another to blow it to pieces. Mr. Gough's lively essay suffers from following too closely these traditional lines. He states convincingly the Socialist's denunciation of Capitalism, and counters it with a spirited defence of selected Capitalists. The arguments are not on the same plane. Then he brings up his main attack with some excellent fooling at the expense of Mr. Cole and Mr. Webb in which he scores some palpable hits. But this nimble feat of breaking a wheel on a butterfly, though it entertains us, does not convince; for the essence of modern Socialism is not to be found in this constitution-mongering.

Dr. Shadwell has realized that it is now possible to adopt an entirely different method. Socialism at last can be judged by its fruits. He surveys it over the whole field of post-war European history, and decides that it has failed. It has failed in Russia, because it was based on a one-sided view of economic life, which stressed distribution and neglected the technique of production, and on a false picture of the ability and virtues of the proletariat. Conclusive evidence of its failure is found in the appalling disaster of 1921 which was followed by a change of policy amounting to a partial re-establishment of Capitalism. Lenin himself referred to it as "from the standpoint of our general policy, a defeat, a serious defeat, and a retreat." The swift success of private trading led to a renewed attack in 1924, which again had to be abandoned in the interests of economic prosperity.

When he turns to the achievements of Socialist Governments outside Russia, Dr. Shadwell is struck by two things. First, their unpreparedness. In Germany, in Austria, and in Sweden they answered the cry for a new world by appointing Commissions of Inquiry into Socialization. Secondly, he notes the universal anxiety to avoid the evils of bureaucracy and the readiness to achieve this end by using the machinery of Capitalism. Business methods were preserved, and the workers found that social control of the economic machine meant little more than a change of master. Dr. Shadwell pays tribute to the fine work done, but maintains that it was made possible only by the abandonment of the principles of doctrinaire Socialism.

The test is faithfully applied, and there is no doubt as to the verdict. But is it a fair test? Many will feel that he has underrated the difficulties of transition, especially in Germany, where in 1918 the Socialists, menaced both by Junkers and Spartacists, had to rule an Empire that was threatening to disintegrate. Others will object that his definition of Socialism is too rigid. Though it has chosen

new instruments of government, it has not abdicated. Here Mr. Eastman can help us. He brilliantly exposes the fatal dualism in the Marxian philosophy. On the one hand, it pictures history in terms of the Hegelian dialectic as progress through contradiction to harmony, through the class war to the dictatorship of the proletariat. This belief is founded on an abstract logical process, in the application of which the wish is father to the thought. It speaks of a predestined movement, in which men are the instruments of a higher purpose, and incidentally, therefore, not expected to be constructive. On the other hand, Marx represents thought as essentially "this-worldly," as "practical-critical action," not an abstraction or reflected image of life, and anticipates Freud in fighting against those repressed impulses whose unconscious desire for self-gratification creates false ideologies. We have here the germ of a scientific method, undeveloped because of the infertility of the Hegelian dialectic. Lenin, as the engineer of revolution, claimed more freedom in action, but remained a slave in theory. Scientific Socialism would throw cant overboard, abandon the belief that victory, in a set form and at a set time, is written in the book of destiny, and consciously work to organize victory with the "maximum of flexibility" of method. Mr. Eastman thinks that the method would still be that of the class war. Perhaps he is even now being proved wrong. Are the facts which Dr. Shadwell reports from Central Europe symptoms of the decay of Socialism, or of a new scientific realism and a growing flexibility? Will he deny that post-war Socialist policy, though unlike pre-war Socialist policy, is still more unlike Liberalism or Conservatism? May not the undogmatic experimental method be based on a readjustment of values and a reorientation of purpose which leave to Socialism a distinct message? These are some of the questions that remain to be answered.

Mr. Peddie has "endeavoured to prove that there is no such thing as a Law of Supply and Demand nor a Quantity Theory of money." But he does not understand what he is attacking, and often fails to distinguish between an economic theory and the economic force which it professes to explain. To this he adds so unconventional a use of words that his title is as likely to express an axiom as a paradox.

T. H. MARSHALL.

THE STALKERS STALKED

Days on the Hill. By AN OLD STALKER. Edited, with an Introduction, by ERIC PARKER. (Nisbet. 15s.)

THIS is not a catalogue of slaughter, like so many sporting books, but a treatise on slaughterers. The author has all his life attended as a stalker on those whom he calls "stalking gentlemen," his employers, and it is about them that he is most interesting, though he also shows a great knowledge of his trade. He is not romantic about this trade, and therefore thinks clearly, and describes his successful stalks as if they were entirely the result of common sense. The gentlemen stalkers are described without malignancy, but as queer and unaccountable people, whose habits, like the habits of deer, can only be known and predicted after a lifetime's experience. "Stalking gentlemen who get up in years," he says, "labour under a double handicap. It has been my lot to accompany more than one stalking gentleman over a period of years just when this change was taking place, and to note the progress." He then describes how a gentleman who may have been for years a tolerably good shot begins more and more to miss, and to look round for someone or something to blame for this. "The ammunition or the rifle may be defective, but quite as often as otherwise it is the stalker who is to blame." And when the man begins to miss more often than to hit, the author has an excellent opportunity to study the different mentalities of his employers, and he gives many anecdotes of their ways, and also of his ingenious methods of dealing with them. But he never gives either much praise or blame to employers, just as one would not give praise or blame to stags, however troublesome or unaccountable was their behaviour.

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which interests him, and he does not go on to question the meaning or purpose of that which he observes. He assumes that there will always be rich gentlemen who will buy deer forests on which to entertain their business acquaintances, and to whom it will be his task to assure a good day's sport, just as he knows from experience that these gentlemen will always be at a loss to know whether they should or should not tip their gillies. From an observation of his fellows, as disinterested as his observation of deer or of gentlemen stalkers, he recommends that they should be tipped, as otherwise they cannot be expected to put their heart into their work. The author seems to have few personal desires or vanities, except his pleasure in discovering something which is either unusual or has not been noticed before. His book is the more interesting in that it is written in a plain, straightforward style, and we are not distracted by remarks on the ethics of deerstalking or by fine writing about scenery. It is illustrated by several admirable photographs of Scottish landscape, and by a portrait of the author holding a fine pair of antlers.

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Pablo de Segovia: the Spanish Sharper. By FRANCISCO DE QUEVEDO-VILLEGAS. Translated from the Spanish, with an Introduction by HENRY EDWARD WATTS. (Fisher Unwin; Benn. 7s. 6d.)

FRANCISCO DE QUEVEDO, like many another Spaniard both before him and since, was an unbelievably versatile writer. Religious biography, picaresque novel, fantasy, satire, polemic, lyric, and drama—all came from his pen when required; and most of his work has survived in the esteem of a nation many of whose qualities he reflected. Abroad, he is probably known less for his "Sueños," though these were repeatedly translated into English (as the "Visions") during the seventeenth century, than for the romance of the "Vida del Buscón" or "El Gran Tacaño" ("The Great Rascal"), which is one of the really great books in the tradition of "Lazarillo de Tormes," describing with unveiled realism the adventures of a *pícaro*, or bold, bad boy, in a world which, however cold and unhelpful it may be, he succeeds in utilizing to his own profit.

Quevedo's realism, attended by a good deal of unsavoury detail, is accompanied also (in "The Great Rascal") by a brilliancy of style which makes the book impossible to forget. "The outlook is brutally sinister," wrote a recent critic. "There is an almost revolting love of cruelty for its own sake. Indeed, it gives the impression of being one of the cruellest books in the world." For all that, and for all the difficulty of its translation—Quevedo is as hard to translate as any author in Spanish literature—one attempt after another has been made to present its brilliant realism in English. A number of seventeenth-century translations were followed by John Stevens's version in his "Comical Works of Don Francisco de Quevedo" (1707-9); this was revised and edited by a Spanish teacher in London called Pineda; Pineda's edition was the basis of the Edinburgh edition of Quevedo published in 1798; while in 1892 the well-known Spanish scholar, H. E. Watts, reprinted this translation with some corrections, though judging parts of it "scarcely delicate enough for the taste of the modern English public." Only a few months ago, on the other hand, Mr. Charles Duff published "virtually a new translation" of the "Buscón," partly by reason of the unsatisfactoriness of the Spanish texts used by his predecessors, and partly because of his natural distaste for a much patched-up version.

The volume now before us appears to be a reprint, in a less ambitious format, of H. E. Watts's edition of 1892, though there is no mention of this fact in the book itself. The title given to it is that of the earlier editions: until recently, indeed, the work was generally known in this country as "Paul the Spanish Sharper." A comparison between, let us say, Chapter V., describing Paul's adventures in Alcalá, and the corresponding Spanish text of Fernández Guerra, or of M. Foulché-Delbosc, or even Mr. Duff's translation, will show how carefully Mr. Watts softened his original, and at the same time how good is the quality of his version, and how well worth preserving. Less fortunate

is the reprinting of Mr. Watts's "Essay on the Life and Writings of Quevedo" as an introduction to the story and (for many readers) to Quevedo himself. Any student of Spanish literature could have told the publishers that Spanish studies have progressed far since it was written—in such matters, for example, as the authorship of "Lazarillo"—apart from which the current estimate of Quevedo's various works has changed considerably, and this should be taken into account.

E. ALLISON PEERS.

ON THE EDITOR'S TABLE

Two interesting books on international problems are: "The Struggle for the Rhine," by Hermann Stegemann (Allen & Unwin, 12s. 6d.), and "Information on the Problem of Security (1917-1926)," by J. W. Wheeler-Bennett and F. E. Langermann (Allen & Unwin, 10s.).

"Farmers of Forty Centuries," by F. H. King (Cape, 12s. 6d.), contains an account of agriculture to-day in China, Korea, and Japan. "The Rural Industries of England; II.—Osier Growing and Basketry and some Rural Factories," by Helen FitzRandolph and M. Doriel Hay (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 5s.), is part of the survey made on behalf of the Agricultural Economics Research Institute, Oxford.

The First Edition Club publish a Bi-Centenary Edition of Swift's "Gulliver's Travels" (Two guineas), edited, with an introduction, bibliography, and notes, by Harold Williams.

Volume II. of "A History of the Pharaohs," by Arthur Weigall (Thornton Butterworth, 21s.), contains a history of the period covering the twelfth to the eighteenth dynasties.

Among autobiographies may be noted: "Under Three Emperors," by Count Reischach (Constable, 10s. 6d.), who was Master of the Horse and Lord High Chamberlain at the German Court; "Thirty Years in the Public Service," by Rose E. Squire (Nisbet, 10s. 6d.), who was Deputy Lady Inspector of Factories and Principal in the Home Office; "The Autobiography of Kingsley Fairbridge" (Oxford University Press, 6s.).

"The Catholic Church and History," by Hilaire Belloc (Burns, Oates, & Washbourne, 4s.), attempts to rebut evidence from History against the claims of the Catholic Church. "The Benedictines," by Edouard Schneider (Allen & Unwin, 6s.), is a study of the Benedictine Order.

"An Introduction to the Theory of Perception," by Sir John Herbert Parsons (Cambridge University Press, 18s.), is a volume in the Cambridge Psychological Library.

NOVELS IN BRIEF

Nala and Damayanti. By NORMAN M. PENZER. (Philpot, 31s. 6d.)

Mr. Penzer offers a version of one of the most famous Sanskrit legends which is by no means a direct translation, for while following classical versions of the story, he has added descriptive passages, written in accordance with Indian literary tradition and linking together incidents taken from the various versions. The purely passive and decorative nature of the love story, of the account of Nala's being possessed by an evil spirit and gambling away his kingdom, of his time of degradation as a dwarfish charioteer, and ultimate restoration to Damayanti, makes possible a form of treatment against which a more spirited legend would revolt. Mr. Penzer's treatment is thus so far justified, that he has not limited any far vision or over-embroidered any conception of time, death or eternity; for the legend is never tragic, nor has it a philosophy of its own. Mr. P. Zenker's Persian illustrations fully explain the limited loveliness and narrow horizon of the dreamy story.

Best Short Stories of 1926. No. 1.—English. Edited by E. J. O'BRIEN. (Cape, 7s. 6d.)

The strict period covered by Mr. O'Brien's new volume is June, 1925, to May, 1926. Here, as in his similar collections of the four preceding years, are offered what in his consideration are the very best English and Irish stories published during that time. There appears work by Messrs. J. D. Beresford, Walter de la Mare, Aldous Huxley, D. H. Law-

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83 Gt. Titchfield St., London, W.1

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Its chapters will be invaluable to parents and teachers. The first contains a wonderful new idea and a clean, vital new word—*erogamic*—to do duty for the clean, fresh idea the best people are reaching out toward in their lives to-day. "Education" says: "It is a simple but exhaustive treatise on a fundamental and very difficult subject."

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G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, Ltd.,
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A guide to young married couples who have children or expect to have children, lightening the onerous task of bearing the child they long for. "Daily Express" says: "Messrs. Putnam have the root of the matter in them when they say that an intelligent study of Dr. Stopes's works (and a practical application of their teachings) would see the human race transformed."

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, Ltd.,
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A Banned Play

AND

A Preface on the Censorship

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NET

Much discussion has recently revolved around the Censorship, and this book should make the author's case clear. A stirring 3-Act Play dealing with one of modern life's problems stopped by the Censor in rehearsal so that English people are debarred from seeing it, although it is going to be produced on the Continent.

BALE & DANIELSSON, Ltd.,
83 Gt. Titchfield St., London, W.1

Man, Other Poems and a Preface

3/6

NET

Very interesting little poems about which the "Scotsman" said: "The work in this volume is always natural and sweet in feeling, and has a pleasing art of its own," and the "Times": "Her highest level we think is reached in 'Tokio Snow,' expressed in stanzas which have a curious but very successful rhyme scheme."

WM. HEINEMANN, LTD.,
21 Bedford St., London, W.C.2

A NEW GOSPEL TO ALL PEOPLES

First delivered to the Bishops at Lambeth, 1920. Vellum. 2/6. A. L. HUMPHREYS, 187, Piccadilly

rence, Hugh Walpole, Liam O'Flaherty, Gerald Bullett, and A. E. Coppard, among others. Of these, Mr. O'Flaherty and Mr. Coppard are most distinctive—the latter in particular, with the title-story of his recent volume, "The Field of Mustard," a study of profound and nervous beauty. A list of the year's best stories not included in the book is also given, with a valuable biographical section.

BOOKS IN BRIEF

The Oxford Book of Eighteenth-Century Verse. Chosen by DAVID NICHOL SMITH. (Oxford: Clarendon Press. 8s. 6d.)

This is a charming addition to the series of Oxford anthologies. The basis of its selection is purely chronological, for it "endeavours to represent the poetry that was written in this country during the hundred years from 1700 to 1800." The first poem in it is Pomfret's "The Choice," the last a skit of Canning's from the "Anti-Jacobin." In all the century is represented by 450 poems arranged chronologically. If one takes the number of poems and pages allotted to each poet, one finds that the century belongs to Pope (pre-eminently), and then to Cowper, Burns, and James Thomson.

Beyond the Khyber Pass. By LOWELL THOMAS. (Hutchinson. 18s.)

Mr. Thomas is an expert traveller and travel-book writer. Here he tells of his adventures in Afghanistan beyond the Khyber Pass. The book is written with spirit and picturesquely. It is adorned with a large number of exceptionally interesting photographs taken by the intrepid Mr. Chase.

REVIEWS AND MAGAZINES

THE Quarterlies have swept the Monthlies by the board, arriving in such numbers that this column must in justice this time be largely devoted to a brief indication of their principal contents, which, being specialized, are so varied as to make any continuity of theme impossible.

"The Economic History Review," the new annual publication of the Economic History Society, is a valuable addition to periodical literature. It opens appropriately with an address by the President of the Society, Sir William Ashley, on "The Place of Economic History in University Studies." The writer points out that this special branch of learning and research forms a link between theoretical economics and "pure" history, and corrects the inherent faults of both, for "the economist tends to be too abstract, insufficiently cognizant of fact; the historian to be too concrete, too heavily burdened with fact." Perhaps the most interesting paper is Professor Holdsworth's memorandum on "A Neglected Aspect of the Relations between Economic and Legal History," which shows, with illuminating examples, that many legal principles have sprung from economic necessity, and have survived into a time when the economic factors have wholly changed.

"L'Esprit International" makes a first appearance this quarter. It has for its object the education of international public opinion. It will publish regularly the more important treaties, and resolutions and reports of the League of Nations and other international bodies. The present issue contains an essay by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler on "L'Etat comme Personne Morale," and the reprint of a lecture delivered in Paris by Herr Thomas Mann on "Les Tendances Spirituelles de l'Allemagne d'aujourd'hui."

"The Slavonic Review," that excellent and scholarly by-product of the School of Slavonic Languages in London University, has an article on Michaelangelo by the Yugoslav sculptor, Ivan Mestrovic, a translation of Gogol's "Gamblers," by Sir Bernard Pares and G. Wallerstein, "Some Observations on Tolstoy," which includes some amusing observations on the Tolstoyans, by M. A. Aldanov, an anonymous article on "Soviet Foreign Policy," and—but to mention everything worth reading in the Review would be to detail every item of a long contents list.

The "Hibbert Journal" has an article on "The Next Set of Problems but One," by Professor Gilbert Murray, and an honest attempt by Mdlle. Aline Lion to show the bright

side of Fascism. Mr. F. J. R. Hendy writes "The Public Schools: a Critical Appreciation."

"Science Progress," the formidable Review of Scientific Thought, Work, and Affairs, is hardly for the amateur. "Locke on Seventeenth-Century Science," by Mr. J. C. Gregory—under the heading "Popular Science"—is probably the most he can hope to compass, though he will look wistfully at "The Physical Work of Descartes" (F. Wootton, B.Sc.) and "Elements whose Existence has been Announced, but which are not Recognized" (J. G. F. Druce, M.Sc.).

"The Edinburgh Review" publishes an anonymous article on "Social Problems in South Africa." The crucial question of racial relationships in South Africa is being well ventilated, the main interest for the reader now lies in seeing what a given writer will make of the little set of theoretical solutions open to him—miscegenation, segregation, &c.—like watching what a chess player will do with his pieces within the laws governing their moves. Archdeacon Owen shows an enlightened point of view, dealing, in the same paper, with "Empire and Church in Uganda and Kenya."

"The Quarterly Review" has articles on "The Nationalist Movement in China," by Mr. R. F. Johnston, and "The Origins of the War," by Mr. Headlam Morley.

"The Fortnightly Review" has an article by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle on "The British Army in Italy," Mr. James Corbett writes on "Mr. Baldwin and his Critics"—"Will Mr. Lloyd George constitute himself the real rival of Mr. Baldwin at the next election, or will he make a move that will stagger even the Speaker of the House of Commons? . . . Will Mr. Baldwin make a valiant bid for further political power, or will he co-operate with the Liberals in order to secure a sane alternative Government?"

"Headway," the journal of the "League of Nations Union," publishes a paper by Professor Gilbert Murray on "Changing America." The Hon. Mrs. Alfred Lyttelton writes on "The International Committee of Intellectual Co-operation," and there are some interesting items of news.

"The New Criterion" continues to be far and away the best literary magazine printed in English. This month it contains the conclusion of Mr. T. S. Eliot's "Fragment of an Agon," an essay by M. Jacques Maritain on "Poetry and Religion," and an agreeable conversation by Mr. Humbert Wolfe on "English Bards and French Reviewers."

"The Calendar" prints three poems by Mr. W. J. Turner, a story by Mr. T. F. Powys, and includes in its list of reviewers Mr. D. H. Lawrence and Mr. Gordon Craig.

Mr. D. H. Lawrence has a sketch—"Mornings in Mexico: The Mozo"—in the "Adelphi" which is well worth the price of the volume.

"The Cornhill Magazine" has an article on Arthur Benson's Notebooks by Mr. Geoffrey Madan, the continuation of "A Girl's Friendship with John Ruskin," by the late Jessie Leete, and a curious "Episode of the German Occupation of Lille" called "Charles the Pigeon," by Mr. B. S. Townroe.

The Trustees of the British Museum have decided to issue a Quarterly illustrated description of acquisitions to the Museum. The first number records some fine specimens in the archaeological section. There is also a good reproduction of a Michaelangelo drawing.

"The Print Collector's Quarterly" reproduces three states of the rare Goya etching of Velazquez's "Las Meninas," with a description by Mr. Campbell Dodgson, and has an illustrated article by Mr. Harold J. L. Wright on the late Percy Francis Gethin, with a chronological list of his works.

"Drawing and Design" contains a reproduction of a vigorous drawing by Jacob Jordaens from the exhibition at Burlington House. The attitude of the public to modern art is dwelt on in a vehement article by Mr. Gerald Reitlinger. There are illustrations of the work of Brancusi, and some interesting Early Russian wall-paintings of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, with a paper by Dr. Albert Dresdner, who traces the connection between them and the art of to-day.

"The Antiquaries' Journal" has an article on "The Discoveries at Glozel, Allier," by Salomon Reinach, and an account of "The Megalithic Monuments of Southern Finistère," by C. Daryll Forde, and "Some Greek Seals of the 'Geometric' Period," by Mr. Stanley Casson.

COMPANY MEETING.

NATIONAL PROVINCIAL BANK.

SIR HARRY GOSCHEN ON TRADE CONDITIONS.

The annual general meeting of the shareholders of the National Provincial Bank, Ltd., was held on Thursday, January 27th, at the Cannon Street Hotel, London, E.C.

Sir Harry Goschen, K.B.E., presided.

Sir Alfred E. Lewis (chief general manager) having read the notice convening the meeting and the report of the auditors,

The Chairman said: Ladies and Gentlemen,—I am glad that again we are able to submit to you a report and balance sheet which I believe you will find satisfactory.

Turning to the balance sheet, the only item to which I have to draw your attention on the liabilities side is the current, deposit, and other accounts, which at £259,000,000 shows an increase of six and a half millions over last year's figures, while on the assets side the first four items present practically no variation from the figures appearing in last year's balance sheet.

Sales of securities during the year have reduced the item represented by our investments by some two millions, and this sum, together with the increased amount of our deposits, has been absorbed in the larger total at which our advances to customers &c., stand this year. The increase in this item of eight millions reflects the assistance we have been able to afford our customers during a time of exceptional difficulty, and is mainly accounted for by the abnormal requirements of our industrial accounts in the provinces. Receipts obtained by our customers from the sales of finished goods in stock when work came to a practical standstill were required for the payment of maturing trade liabilities, and we have thought it only right, and indeed our duty to the industries of the country, to facilitate the early resumption of work by providing, as far as we prudently could, the necessary funds for the payment of wages, and the replenishment of the stocks of materials which our friends might require, and so to bridge the gap until conditions in trade again resumed their normal course.

Our bills of exchange stand at practically the same sum as in last year's balance sheet.

The increase in our premises account is due in the main to the new branches we have opened, as set out in the report.

Coming to the profit and loss account, after making provision for all bad and doubtful debts, rebate, &c., we close the past year with an available balance of £3,032,613 14s. 10d., including the amount brought forward from last year—viz., £916,959 17s. 1d. Of this sum we have already distributed to the shareholders £853,147 8s. 10d. in the shape of a 9 per cent. dividend. In view of our constantly increasing staff we have thought it well again to appropriate £150,000 to the pension fund; bank premises account has been credited with £100,000, and the contingency fund has been further strengthened by the addition of £200,000. Exactly similar provisions were approved of by the shareholders last year.

After making these transfers, the balance remaining fully justified us in declaring a final dividend of 9 per cent., which will again absorb £853,147 8s. 10d., and leave us with £876,318 17s. 2d.—being more than a half-year's dividend at the same rate—to carry forward to the next account.

THE COAL DISPUTE.

In reviewing the conditions of the trade of this country during the last year, the one dominating factor is the calamitous dispute and the consequent cessation of work for some seven months in the coalfields.

The year opened under promising conditions. We had the satisfaction of witnessing a return of confidence, and signs were not wanting of a revival in trade. Although we could not dismiss from our minds the fact that a new agreement between the coal owners and the men would have to be found, on conditions that would bring a return of prosperity to the coalfields, no one anticipated that the whole industry, and indeed many other trades, would be thrown into chaos, rather than that the true economic facts of the situation would be realised by all concerned. The country had passed through three years of severe trade depression. Our shipyards were comparatively idle; our collieries, iron and steel makers, textile, and other important industries were faced with serious problems, arising, in part from world-wide conditions, and in part from the unwillingness of people on all sides to acknowledge that if any measure of return to prosperity were to be attained, it could only be assured by the fullest efforts, combined with a determination to endure, if necessary, some sacrifice during the transition period through which the country was passing.

OUR NATIONAL TRADE ACCOUNTS.

In examining our national trade accounts, we recall that the years 1924 and 1925 disclosed adverse balances of £336,000,000 and £393,000,000 respectively. The adverse balance for 1926 is £465,000,000, the increase of £72,000,000 over 1925 being accounted for by a fall in exports of £150,000,000, less a fall in imports of £78,000,000.

Our imports during 1926 when compared with 1925 show an increase of £43,000,000 on account of the purchase of foreign coal, and the main features of our export trade have been a fall

in the exports of coal amounting to £31,000,000; in iron and steel goods, £12,000,000; in cotton yarns and manufactures, £45,000,000; in woollen and worsted yarns and materials, £7,000,000. We must not forget, however, that as against the adverse trade balance of visible exports, the country enjoys the benefit of the favourable balance of invisible exports, which was estimated to amount to £415,000,000 in 1924 and £429,000,000 in 1925. We hope that the firmness of the sterling exchange is some indication that the country may have received a substantially larger income from this source during 1926 than during the previous year.

I daresay many of the shareholders have seen in the papers this morning the Board of Trade estimate of these invisible exports, the result of which, when deducted from our adverse balance, to which I have referred, reduces that to some £12,000,000 only, so that the invisible exports of this year have, as we hoped, played a considerable part in reducing that adverse balance.

Our national trade has an important bearing upon our national finances; these have stood the strain well, and although the last financial year closed with a deficit on account of the coal subsidy, to which I have already referred, it is gratifying to observe that no change was made in the fixed appropriation of £50,000,000 to the Sinking Fund. Notwithstanding all the troubles associated with our trade, the stability of the pound sterling has remained unassailed, and the Bank of England accounts at the end of the year show an increase in their stock of gold amounting to £6,500,000, compared with the same date in 1925, and only £4,500,000 less than the amount the Bank held when a free gold market in London was re-established in April of the same year. It is a natural sequence of the trade conditions that our national revenue should show a contraction. On January 1st there was a deficit for the nine months of £146,000,000, compared with £124,000,000 at the same date in the previous year. This deficit is reflected in the increase of £29,000,000 in the Floating Debt, which now amounts to £845,000,000.

During the past year the Government have been able to prolong nearly £83,000,000 of short-dated securities for a further period of seven years at a lower rate of interest, and the scheme for the conversion of Treasury and War Bonds maturing during the course of this year into a Four per Cent. Consolidated stock, announced on December 30th last, has met with complete success.

A closer review of our staple industries does not as a whole present a very bright picture.

THE OUTLOOK.

Local authorities throughout the country have been faced with the necessity of providing relief for large numbers of families deprived of their earning power owing to unemployment arising from lack of fuel and consequent causes, as well as for the dependents of miners; and the large sums required for these purposes preclude any probability of relief in the charges the ratepayers have to bear. But, despite all this, there is no reason to be downhearted. I do not remember a time when, throughout the industries of the country, there was such a feeling of expectation and, indeed, optimism. From all sides reports are current of better prospects, of fuller order books, and of more inquiries for our productions, but far more important even than these are the indications that both capital and labour are at last beginning to realize that they are interdependent, and must face the future hand in hand. The dictum that "The question of peace and efficiency in industry is scarcely less important now than the question of international peace in 1914," enunciated recently by one of our most respected Labour leaders, when in a remarkable speech at Glasgow he pleaded for industrial peace at home, is a declaration of which we must all approve, and the recognition of the fact that wherever there has been co-operation and consultation between employer and workpeople, "there has been increased production and increased wages," strikes me as of the highest importance.

Since the coal pits have been reopened, it is a gratifying feature of the resumption of labour that in so many cases men have shown increasing keenness in their work in the pits, and it seems that a similar growth in the spirit of good will is gradually permeating the other great industries of the country. I welcome the movement that is being initiated to foster these sentiments. No one wishes to see a lower standard of living in Great Britain, but a means must be found to meet foreign competition and to produce our goods at such prices as will enable us to retain our old and attract new customers. It seems impracticable to break down the vicious circle of high wages and high cost of living—another solution must be found. We must reject the old fallacy that increased production per man per hour means more unemployment and a lower standard of living. An increased ratio of production means cheaper goods, more buyers, and more wages, but to attain this we must have all-round good will and efficiency, with employer and employed both working loyally and honestly together in their struggle to secure prosperity for themselves, each other and the country (Loud cheers.)

The Report and Accounts were adopted.

INSURANCE NOTES

CHILDREN'S EDUCATIONAL POLICIES

"EDUCATION," says Plato, "is the fairest things that the best of men can ever have." After food, shelter, and clothing, the most important need of children is for an education. Their whole future happiness and welfare will depend on it.

The cost of providing a public school or university education is heavy, and for many parents can only be provided if spread over a long term of years. The sum required should be insured from the start so that the child's future education may not be imperilled in the event of the father's death. The best way of providing for the cost of education is by means of an endowment assurance on the life of the father, and the working of this arrangement is best explained by giving a specific example. The father, aged thirty, who wishes to provide for an expenditure of £100 a year over a period of seven years, to begin when his boy, now aged one, attains age fourteen, will require an annual deposit of £40 3s. 5d., payable during thirteen years. This sum is reduced by 10 per cent. by the income tax rebate now allowed on these contracts, so that the annual outlay is reduced to £36 3s. 1d. a year. The Assurance Society guarantees to pay seven instalments of £100 commencing at the end of thirteen years or on the previous death of the father. The total cost is thus £470, and £700 will be received, or nearly 50 per cent. more than the net amount deposited. If desired, the benefits can be taken in a lump sum of £638 instead of being spread over seven years. If the child dies the policy can be continued for the benefit of another child or for any other purpose, or it can be surrendered for a cash payment. In addition to fulfilling its primary object in guaranteeing the cost of the child's education, this form of policy is an attractive investment. In the example quoted the yield equals an ordinary taxable investment at 5½ per cent. compound interest. In addition to this there is the very valuable life assurance cover. Mortality tables show that for first-class lives living to-day at age thirty, about one out of eleven will not survive ten years, and one out of eight will not survive a period of fifteen years. It is very obvious, therefore, that failure to provide for the cost of an education by this easy and sure way which is now obtainable from the best Life Offices, may in many cases imperil the child's future welfare.

The policy just described makes provision in advance for the cost of education whether the father lives or not. There is another useful form of policy for providing at a low cost for the education of the child in the event of the death of the father. It is assumed that the father can provide for the cost of education of his child providing he lives, and makes provision in the event of his death. For a father aged thirty-five next birthday the cost per term for providing for £40 a term (three terms a year) for seven years, or a maximum benefit of £800, would be £2 per term payable during four years. This kind of contract only provides the money in the event of the father's death, and is known as a decreasing term assurance. It is a class of policy often useful in other ways for covering temporary liabilities.

The value of education is being appreciated more and more by all classes of Society. In the world of business there are certain fundamental habits which are essential to a truly happy and successful life. Among them are integrity, industry, temperance, activity, promptness, initiative, concentration, and thrift. Education is the harmonious development of all our faculties. It begins at the cradle and goes on right through life. The heavy cost of education, both at school and at the University, is amply repaid in after-life by making a man or woman more useful and capable to Society in general, and enables them to enjoy a much higher standard of living. The advice of a competent insurance man is generally advisable in the selection of a policy to suit individual needs, as sometimes a whole life contract is suitable where a limited deposit is available. It would provide a much larger sum in the event of the father's early death, besides giving him time to improve his plans. It makes provision for a five or seven-year annuity for education by obtaining a cash surrender value of the policy. This annuity would be less than the ordinary one provided by the endowment assurance, but makes a greater provision in the early years in the event of death.

SCRIBO.

These notes are written by a recognized Insurance Consultant, and are written to advise THE NATION readers on Insurance matters. Queries are welcomed, and are treated in strict confidence. Address your Insurance queries to "Scribo," THE NATION AND ATHENÆUM, 38, Great James Street, London, W.C.1.



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FINANCIAL SECTION

THE WEEK IN THE CITY

AUSTRALIAN FINANCE AGAIN—COURTAULDS AND SNIA VISCOSA.

WE have already recommended to the earnest attention of Mr. Bruce the example set by the Crown Colony of Nigeria of publishing a statistical summary with its recent loan prospectus. We now congratulate the Government of South Australia on following the Nigerian lead. But we must deplore the Australian half-heartedness. The statistical summary published by South Australia with its recent 5 per cent. issue sets forth the financial position on June 30th, 1925. We believe that more up to date information could have been obtained from Selfridge's Inquiry Bureau. It is, of course, a step in the right direction, but in the present state of the gilt-edged market is hardly enough to make this 5 per cent. loan at 98 a real success. The borrowing of New South Wales in New York, on the other hand, is a step in the wrong direction. It removes New South Wales more than ever from the orbit of respectability. It is not true to say that New South Wales is favoured in New York. The New York issue price of the New South Wales 5 per cent. loan is 96½, less underwriting commission of 2 per cent., and the borrower has had to agree to a Sinking Fund of ¼ per cent. In other words, South Australia has obtained better terms by 1½ per cent. in London than New South Wales has obtained in New York. The New South Wales Treasurer declared that he had obtained better terms in New York than he could have obtained in London. That may be so. Until New South Wales joins the Federal Loan Council and changes its policy of independent, indiscriminate, and unlimited borrowing, it will not obtain such good terms in London as other Australian States.

* * *

It is well to bear in mind that £14,841,550 of Australian loans mature in London this year, of which provision has so far only been made for £3,845,950—namely, the £2,500,000 Western Australia 3 per cent. stock due January 15th, 1927, and the £1,345,950 South Australia 5 per cent. stock due April 1st, 1927. Australian borrowing for "new works" must be curbed. We observe that the Melbourne Correspondent of the TIMES, writing in the ANNUAL FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW bears out our criticisms last year of Australian finance. We would quote the following (the TIMES, February 1st): "The general tendency exhibited a year ago in public finance has undergone little alteration. High spending continues. . . . The total of the annual Government and municipal taxation borne by a population which slightly exceeds six millions is now £80,000,000. . . . The purchasing power of money had fallen to about half what it was in 1914. . . . Meanwhile there has been no restriction of Government outlay: it expands continually out of its proper ratio to the increases in population and production. . . . Wage and salary increases are forcing up the cost of the public services and business undertakings, notably the railways; and in most of the States it is becoming almost impossible, as a result of these enhanced costs, to ensure a full return of interest on capital borrowed for 'reproductive' works, plus allowances for depreciation, which, as matters stand, are frequently inadequate. . . . All the States are now, in varying degree, finding it difficult to pay their way." This exposure of the Australian position expresses, we believe, the general opinion of responsible business men in Australia. The Tariff Board, for example, in its latest report "can see nothing but economic disaster ahead, and that at no distant date," if the gap between Australian and European wages becomes still wider.

* * *

Some details of the agreement recently concluded between Courtaulds, Glanzstoff, and Snia Viscosa are now emerging. The laconic announcement made by Courtaulds a month ago put forward only "commercial and technical collaboration" as the purpose of the agreement.

An exchange of research work and industrial experience is, of course, important, but it is understood that on the commercial side the agreement aims at specialization. The three groups will no longer waste efforts in turning out all types of silk, but each company will concentrate on those qualities which, for technical or labour reasons, it can best manufacture. Moreover, there will be an agreed selling policy. Each company will be left to deal with its home market, and in the export markets there will be agreed fixed prices, although differences in quality will continue. In the Eastern markets, for example, the Snia Viscosa brands will remain, because they are better known than the others. There will, no doubt, be a joint committee of the three groups to secure unified control. Courtaulds and Glanzstoff, which are already partners, will be represented on the board of Snia Viscosa. We can categorically deny the rumour that Snia Viscosa intends to issue fresh capital. Its recent issue of 7½ per cent. debentures and ordinary shares put its financial house in order, and provided it with sufficient working capital. The amalgamation only means, as Sig. Gualino stated, that "Snia Viscosa will now rest upon an unshakable financial basis," in other words, that Courtaulds will take a sufficient interest to secure an effective financial supervision. It is remarkable that Courtaulds, who have always affected to despise the competition of Snia Viscosa and ridicule its new fibre, Sniafil (artificial wool), should now find it desirable to secure commercial collaboration and a financial interest. Snia Viscosa probably hopes to benefit more out of the amalgamation than Courtaulds. That this is the Stock Exchange view may be seen in the fact that Snia Viscosa shares have risen from 2½ to 3 3-16, while Courtaulds have come up from 5 to 5½.



SECURITY - £11,839,056

Accident = Fire = Marine

The Company transacts, either direct or through its Allied Companies, all classes of Insurance Business.

CHIEF ADMINISTRATION: 7, CHANCERY LANE, W.C.2

COMPANY MEETING.

MIDLAND BANK LIMITED.

The Ordinary General Meeting of the Shareholders of the Midland Bank Limited was held at the Cannon Street Hotel, London, E.C.4, on Friday, January 28th, 1927.

The Chairman, The Right Hon. R. McKenna, said in part:—

The task I am setting myself to-day is by no means an easy one. I propose if I can to give some answer, partial though it may be, to the question: Why is it that for the past six years we have suffered from trade depression and unemployment of almost unparalleled severity, while America has enjoyed great and increasing prosperity? In the present case I cannot escape the conclusion that the monetary element has been of deep importance.

Since the autumn of 1921 there has been a great expansion in bank deposits in the United States. It will be found that the average total deposits of the reporting member banks of the Federal Reserve system rose from £2,860 millions for the twelve months ending November, 1922, to £3,751 millions for 1926, an addition of no less than £891 millions. Over the same period the total deposits of the ten London clearing banks fell from £1,783 millions to £1,661 millions, a decline of £122 millions. Those who think that any increase in the volume of money must be stigmatized as inflation will doubtless be alarmed by this growth of credit in the United States; but if the supply of new money does no more than keep pace with the increase in production, there is in fact no inflation whatever. We have to distinguish clearly between inflationary and non-inflationary growth in the volume of credit, and to do so we must start with the question of how additional money comes into being. Apart from the action of a bank, the public in practice are powerless to increase or diminish permanently the total of money except by destroying their notes or sending them out of the country. The Government, independently of action by the Bank of England, are no less passive than the public. We must therefore look to action by the banks, and particularly the Bank of England as the central institution, for the cause of these movements. All banks however insist on maintaining a fairly regular proportion between their cash and deposits, so that if we are to discover the real causes of fluctuation in the quantity of money we must look for them in whatever produces variation in the total of bank cash, which in the language of the clearing banks means currency holdings together with balances at the Bank of England.

It is not generally recognized that the principal cause of any but the most transient movements is not something done by the banks, but something done by the Bank of England. If the Bank of England makes a loan, or discounts bills, or buys gold or securities, the amount paid becomes bank cash. Conversely, when a loan by the Bank of England is repaid, or discounted bills are met at maturity, or gold or securities are sold, bank cash is correspondingly diminished. Indirectly therefore the Bank of England is in practice the controller of the volume of money. Thus we see that the gold standard is by no means the "automatic" mechanism it is commonly alleged to be, since the Bank, merely by buying or selling, lending or calling in loans, can within limits prompt an expansion or contraction of credit regardless of movements of gold. The Bank itself however is governed by the terms of its constitution, and even such freedom for the exercise of policy as it might possess is in considerable measure limited by the rigidity of its system. This is the point on which I wish to lay emphasis to-day.

It is not surprising, in view of the conditions of our trade in recent years, that Bank of England policy has for some time been a matter of controversy. All parties acknowledge the principle that the governing factor in the exercise of monetary powers should be the needs of healthy and legitimate trade, but they do not agree as to the practicability or the method of securing this result. Indeed, neither the critics nor the defenders of the present monetary system are all in agreement among themselves. If we were to label one party deflationist and the other inflationist we should do great injustice to many of the more sober disputants on both sides. The arguments against both inflation and deflation are sufficiently clear to make it evident that our proper course is to have nothing to do with either. But it is not always easy to know when we are in fact inflating or deflating. Let me illustrate what I mean by turning to the United States, where, as I have mentioned already, the volume of money has expanded enormously in recent years. On the fact of it this might appear to be a case of inflation, but if we examine statistics of production over the same period we shall see that a very large increase has taken place in industrial output. As a result there has been no rise in prices and no inflation.

RIGIDITY OF BRITISH MONETARY SYSTEM.

Now let me take another case, drawn from our own experience, in which without any actual restriction of credit the basic circumstances are such as to make our condition one of con-

tinuous deflation. In order fully to occupy our people an immediate increase of banking credit, that is of money, is indispensable for carrying the larger volume of commodities which the unemployed and the new recruits to labour will produce. To check the growth of credit when the population is steadily increasing and vast numbers of men and women are out of employment is obviously to cut off all hope of trade expansion unless prices are continuously lowered. But we all know what falling prices mean to trade in these conditions. Deflation, even rigorous deflation, was a harsh necessity in 1920 and 1921. Its continuance in varying degrees of intensity through the following three years, after the United States had abandoned the process, was based on the desire to effect an early return to the gold standard. We have now been working on the gold standard for nearly two years, and except for the rigidity of the Bank of England system, there is nothing to prevent the same response being given to growing trade demands in this country as has been given in America.

It is accepted as an axiom that an influx of gold into the Bank of England stimulates trade here. The stimulus however is not due to the Bank having more or less bullion buried in its vaults, but to the additional bank cash which the purchase of gold creates. The effect on the total of bank cash is precisely the same whether the Bank buys gold or bills or War Loan or bricks and mortar, whether it lends to the Government, the Bank of France or any other of its private customers. When the Bank buys gold however its reserve is strengthened and the ratio improved; when it buys anything else the reserve remains unaffected and the ratio declines. It naturally follows that an increase of bank cash which arises from an influx of gold is regarded with equanimity and even satisfaction, while a proposal for an increase of bank cash specifically to meet trade needs would not be viewed with the same cordiality.

The American system has been framed to suit modern conditions, and in fixing reserve requirements the development of deposit banking has been duly recognized. On the other hand, the Bank of England continues to operate under the Act of 1844, and as a consequence its reserve is insufficient to permit open market operations with a view to increasing the volume of credit on anything more than quite a small scale. If our central bank were to be re-established on the same reserve basis as either the Federal Reserve Banks or the recently reconstructed Reichsbank, or indeed in accordance with any modern system, the Bank of England would have a reserve standing at a far higher figure than it does to-day and could work with much greater freedom of policy and with manifest advantages to our trade. I am convinced that this subject merits the most disinterested and painstaking investigation. An exhaustive inquiry into the principles on which a central bank should be founded and should conduct its operations would be of immense service to the public. The vital need for the future is to ensure that the maintenance of prosperity, with a growing population and ever-improving standard of living, both requiring an expansion in the volume of trade, shall not be hampered by false restrictions on the quantity of money. We need careful and expert consideration of the theoretical basis and practical technique of our credit and currency system, including the position of the Bank of England as the central institution and custodian of our monetary resources. No time is too early for this, but the present is peculiarly opportune by reason of the necessary revision of the Bank Charter involved in the projected amalgamation of the note issues.

POSITION OF THE BANK.

Paid-up Capital and Reserve both amount to £12,665,798. Current, Deposit and other Accounts stood on December 31st last at £366,423,103, nearly 18 millions higher than a year before. The Home Safe scheme inaugurated in the early part of the year has since been extended to the whole of our branches in England and Wales. Acceptances and Engagements on account of Customers have also increased by over a million to £37,065,445. Acceptances alone declined by 3 millions, but there was a more than compensating increase in Engagements, which may be attributed to the growing popularity of the forward exchange facilities offered by the Bank.

Coin, Gold Bullion, Bank and Currency Notes and Balances with the Bank of England amount to £52,994,044, slightly less than a year ago. On the other hand, Balances with, and Cheques in course of Collection on other Banks in Great Britain and Ireland are somewhat higher at £18,222,492, while Money at Call and Short Notice has risen by 4 millions to £22,786,852. These three items are together equal to 25.7 per cent. of our deposit liabilities, about the same figure as that recorded a year ago. Investments are 4 millions higher and now amount to £38,853,582. Bills Discounted are also up by 5 millions, now standing at £46,744,312. Advances to Customers and other Accounts have increased by a further 4 millions to £200,459,993. Bank Premises are entered at £6,936,574, and we now operate through more than 1,900 offices in England and Wales. Investment in affiliated institutions stands at £6,493,809.

The net profit for the year shows a further small increase to £2,535,730, which with the amount brought forward makes a total of £3,348,896 for allocation. The Dividend of 18 per cent. per annum less tax absorbs £1,823,874. Of the remainder, £500,000 has been appropriated to Bank Premises Redemption Fund and £200,000 to Officers' Pension Fund, leaving £825,022 to be carried forward.

The Report was adopted, other ordinary business was transacted, and the proceedings terminated with a vote of thanks to the Chairman.

COMPANY MEETING.

BANK OF LIVERPOOL AND
MARTINS LIMITED.

CHAIRMAN'S SURVEY OF HOME TRADES.

PLEA FOR PEACE AND PRODUCTION.

NINETY-SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING.

The Ninety-sixth Annual Meeting of Shareholders of the Bank of Liverpool & Martins Limited was held at Liverpool on Friday, January 28th. The Chairman, Mr. R. M. Holland-Martin, C.B., presided over a large attendance.

The Chairman, in moving the adoption of the Report and Accounts, referred to the retirement at the end of last summer of Mr. T. Fisher Caldwell, who succeeded Sir James Hope Simpson three years ago. The Board wished to place on record their appreciation of the many services he rendered the Bank during the twenty-three years he was connected with it.

Mr. A. F. Shawyer had been appointed General Manager in his place, an appointment made by the Board with great confidence, for not only had Mr. Shawyer had long banking experience, first with the Cumberland Union Banking Co., and afterwards with the Bank of England, the Lincoln & Lindsey Bank, and the Midland Bank, but in the two and a half years since he joined the Bank of Liverpool the Directors and the customers had learnt how clear was his insight into the many problems that confront a banker.

Mr. J. M. Furniss, District General Manager of the North Eastern District, had been appointed Assistant General Manager of the Bank, and had been succeeding in the North Eastern District by Mr. J. McKendrick.

Mr. H. Mancknols Walton, for five years a member of the Manchester Board, had been elected to the General Board.

SATISFACTORY YEAR'S TRADING.

Reviewing the balance-sheet, the Chairman said after making provision for all bad and doubtful debts, the net profit for the year amounted to £542,730, a decrease of £29,586 from 1925, but £12,288 more than 1924. £188,356 was brought forward, and the Board proposed to allocate £150,000 to Reserve, bringing it up to £2,000,000 (a considerable figure he hoped to see increased until it was at least equal to the paid-up capital); to write £50,000 off Bank Premises Account, which would then stand at the very conservative figure of £1,555,943, having regard to their very valuable properties; and to pay a half-yearly dividend of 8 per cent., making 16 per cent. for the year, a rate maintained since 1919.

Loans and advances, which decreased by some two million pounds the previous year, had risen by £1,289,692, as was only to be expected from the condition of trade in the areas in which the Bank was interested. This was naturally reflected in the proportions of cash in hand and money at short notice, which was 23.2 per cent., as against 24.18 per cent.

BANKS AND BUSINESS.

"Once more then we have done our share," the Chairman continued, "in helping to finance the trade and industry of the country. In doing so, we have, in common with the other banks, fulfilled our proper function, and I submit, with due respect to our critics, that the banks should keep strictly within their province. I imagine most business men will agree with me that a trade would prefer

to solve its own problems without outside interference. English banks have always set their faces against becoming partners in the businesses of their customers and prefer to deal with their customers as individuals rather than to deal with trades as a whole. Even supposing one trade to be particularly distressed at a given moment, yet the members of that trade all differ from each other in their financial conditions and need separate sympathetic treatment."

The history of the London Money Market in 1926 showed that the Bank of England had exercised its control fall below the 5 per cent. to which it had been raised in the previous December, but these were dashed by the of the market both wisely and well. There were great hopes in the early part of the year the Bank Rate would general strike and the coal dispute.

HOME TRADES REVIEWED.

Home trades naturally had been affected adversely by the strike. Farmers again had had a disappointing year. Those who depended on stock had suffered severely from the fall in prices, the pig trade being the one bright spot. More beet factories had come into work, and aided by the subsidy, had helped farmers to grow a profitable crop. Despite the efforts of the National Farmers' Union, the milk trade had been unprofitable, milk production during the past few years having overrun consumption.

There had been a steady and fairly profitable trade in wheat and prices seemed to have come down to a fairly safe level, owing to the good crops harvested in most exporting countries. The year's imports were slightly larger than in 1925. The year had been a bad one for the milling trade, which suffered from excessive competition, the country being still over-milled, and prospects were not too bright.

COAL SET-BACK.

The incalculable harm done to the nation by the coal dispute had not only involved the miners and others in the loss of over £200,000,000 in wages and had driven many of them into debt that would take years to pay off, besides the exhaustion of their Trade Union funds, but mineowners had suffered equally in the deterioration of mines and plants and the loss of profits. Any profits made in 1927 would have to be spent in great measure in repairing the harm done. Recovery from the effects of the strike would take months, and be only attained by goodwill on all sides and hard work on the part of everyone.

The expectation of a gradual revival of the iron and steel trade ended with the coal strike, and the British output of pig iron was lower than it had been since 1850, and of steel the lowest for thirty years. The outlook for the future, however, was promising. Many furnaces had been restarted, and in view of the shortage of pig iron, production should go ahead if only coal costs could be kept low. With the revival of industry there was a rising demand for constructional steel and shipbuilding material.

Although shipbuilding had been at a standstill throughout the country, for the coming year the outlook was good. There was a considerable amount of work on order, and some of the closed yards would probably be reopened shortly.

The outlook in shipping was brighter, as it was thought freights had now reached the bottom, and that a gradual increase would shortly result.

In the engineering trade the year had been a bad one, but it was hoped that with the revival of work in the shipbuilding yards there would be a general demand for the new and improved machines necessary if bigger output and more economical working were to be obtained.

COTTON.

The difficulties of the cotton trade had been great. Throughout the year there had been a steady fall in the prices of raw material and textiles, which had resulted in buyers holding off. The state of affairs in China had taken away one of our best markets, and in addition foreign competition in the coarser qualities of goods had grown more severe. The large American cotton crop, with its consequent effect on values, caused the American section of the spinning trade to suffer more than any other.

Prospects for 1927 were fair. Stocks were not heavy and should be rapidly absorbed, while with prices at their present low level all fears of depreciation should be at an end, and with any indication of an upward tendency substantial orders should be placed.

Britain still held pride of place in the world's cotton production; and in the future, despite keener competition from our rivals, we ought, if only we could maintain our efficiency, to continue to hold our ground, more particularly for high class goods.

WOOL.

In the woollen trade mills had run short time or even stood still owing to the importation of French manufactured goods at prices with which our manufacturers could not compete. The appreciation of the French exchange had tended to eliminate that competition, and with freedom from industrial trouble at home it was hoped trade would improve.

CALL FOR INDUSTRIAL PEACE.

Reiterating his statement of a year ago that industrial peace is the greatest need of the nation, the Chairman said the stern facts of last year's conflict and the appalling figures of unemployment had taught them, as perhaps nothing else ever would, how dependent each trade, each individual, was on other trades and other individuals.

"We have seen that if the coal mines cease to work," he said, "the blast furnaces and the steel works have also to close down, and in their wake all heavy engineering work and shipbuilding is crippled. So, too, if the textile trades work short hours the light engineers' shops are affected. Trade cannot really prosper unless all are doing well. It is useless for the cry of higher wages to be raised unless the Nation as a whole is at work and is earning profits.

"By last year's strife we have added to the national burdens and have made our goods more expensive. Our increasing expenditure and diminishing revenue will not allow the remission of taxation which is so essential for the relief of the burdens of industry. The serious increases in rates further handicap our manufacturers. Our trade welfare depends on our being able to produce well and cheaply, but industries cannot install the machinery needed for greater efficiency if there are no profits left, after paying the first charge of wages, to remunerate the capital required to run the works.

"Let us then, as our resolution for 1927, determine to do all that we can to add to the efficiency of our respective businesses and to cut down our expenses, that we may produce the best goods in the best and cheapest way, in order to retain our place in those markets that we have been so near losing this year; and, while working together in partnership to this common end, let capital bear in mind the rightful needs of labour and give labour over and above adequate wages that should allow of a constantly improving standard of living, some chance of participation, by investment, in the profits that remain after capital has received its due return. Nothing interests a man so much in his work as to realize that if the business in which he is employed is doing well he, too, will benefit; nothing benefits trade so much as the welfare of all."

The Reports and Accounts were unanimously adopted.

BANK OF LIVERPOOL & MARTINS LIMITED.

Head Office: 7, WATER STREET, LIVERPOOL.

London Office: 68, LOMBARD STREET, E.C. 3.

Capital Subscribed £18,791,120

Capital Paid Up and
Reserves 4,454,154

Deposits, etc., at 31st Dec.,
1926 59,819,326

The Bank has 389 offices, also Agents in
all the principal towns at home and abroad.

All descriptions of Banking, Trustee and Foreign
Exchange Business Transacted.

ACCOUNTS OPENED for £1 and upwards.
Interest allowed.

NATIONAL PROVINCIAL BANK LIMITED

Paid-up Capital - - £9,479,416

Reserve Fund - - 9,479,416

Deposits, &c. (Dec., 1926) - 260,126,125

Head Office: 15, BISHOPSGATE, LONDON, E.C.2.

1,172 Offices.

Agents Everywhere.

BRITISH, COLONIAL & FOREIGN BANKING BUSINESS TRANSACTED.

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SAVINGS DEPARTMENT:

Small Accounts Opened.

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Prospectus from the Headmaster.

A FRIENDS' BOARDING SCHOOL

For Boys aged 8-18.

STRAMONGATE SCHOOL, KENDAL.

HIGHLY QUALIFIED STAFF — one to every ten boys. Special system of SMALL SEPARATE HOUSES with informal intimate family life. Small boys together in one House. Write for Prospectus and Government Inspectors' Report, and particulars of Entrance Scholarships, to the Secretary to the Governors.

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Students are trained in this College to become Teachers of Gymnastics, Games, &c. Fees £105 per year. For particulars, apply The Secretary, 37, Lansdowne Road, Bedford.

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AN ENDOWED BOARDING SCHOOL in the Cotswold Hills for boys from ten to eighteen, educating boys of every social class. Moderate fees. For illustrated prospectus apply to Headmaster, J. H. Simpson, M.A., Rendcomb College, Cirencester.

UPLANDS SCHOOL, ST. LEONARDS-ON-SEA. — The Church Education Corporation offers two open Scholarships (senior for girls under 15 and junior under 18) of £40 and £30 respectively, for entrance September, 1927. Last day of entry for examination, March 5th. For particulars apply to the Secretary, 34, Denison House, Westminster, London, S.W.1.

TO MODERN PARENTS. — We offer to educate, from babyhood to University age, in ideal country surroundings (with large wooded private grounds), a group of boys and girls who in September, 1927, when the school opens, are between the ages of two and seven years. Later admissions according to vacancies or extension. Distance from London two hours. — For terms and prospectus write **BERTRAND or DORA RUSSELL**, 31, Sydney Street, London, S.W.8.

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SALTASH COUNTY SCHOOL (MIXED).

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- (2) An ASSISTANT MISTRESS to take general subjects.
- (3) An ASSISTANT MASTER to take Mathematics, Science and Geography.

Ability to help with Physical Training, Games, Music or Art will be a recommendation.

Salary Scale in accordance with the Burnham Award for Secondary Schools, plus £20 per annum for the Senior Mistress.

Forms of application may be obtained (on receipt of a stamped and addressed foolscap envelope) from Mr. C. A. Hall, District Education Office, Saltash. Applications should reach the Head Master (H. J. Hewitt, Esq., M.A., 108, Harehills Avenue, Leeds), not later than February 10th, 1927.

F. R. FASCOE,

Secretary for Education.

County Hall, Truro.

January 31st, 1927.

MEDICAL.

ST. ANDREW'S HOSPITAL FOR MENTAL DISEASES, NORTHAMPTON.

President: The Most Hon. the MARQUESS of EXETER, C.M.G., C.B.E. This Registered Hospital receives for treatment PRIVATE PATIENTS of the UPPER and MIDDLE CLASSES of both sexes. The Hospital, its branches (including a Seaside Home at Llanfairfechan, North Wales), and its numerous Villas are surrounded by over a thousand acres of park and farm. Voluntary boarders without certificates received. For particulars apply to:—

Telephone: No. 58. **DANIEL F. RAMBAUT, M.A., M.D.**, Medical Superintendent.

Dr. Rambaut can be seen by appointment on Wednesdays at 30, Harley Street, W.1. Telephone: Langham 1827.

LECTURES.

"CATARRH AND COLDS, AND THEIR CAUSES," by Mr. Eustace Miles, Thursday, January 10th, at 8.45 and 6.15 p.m., in the GREEN SALON, 40, Chandos Street, Charing Cross. Admission 1s.

LITERARY.

"THE RELIGION OF A UNITARIAN" given post free. — Miss Barnby, Mount Pleasant, Sidmouth.

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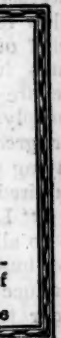
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